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ECONOMIC AND STATISTICAL  
STUDIES



*John Towne Danson.*  
*About 1848.*

# ECONOMIC AND STATISTICAL STUDIES, 1840-1890

*By* JOHN TOWNE DANSON. WITH  
A BRIEF MEMOIR BY HIS DAUGHTER, MARY  
NORMAN HILL; AND AN INTRODUCTION  
BY E. C. K. GONNER, M.A., BRUNNER PROFESSOR  
OF ECONOMIC SCIENCE, LIVERPOOL UNIVERSITY .



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A MEMOIR OF JOHN TOWNE DANSON



## A MEMOIR OF JOHN TOWNE DANSON

### I

IT may be of interest to those who will use the tables which form this volume, to know something of their author.

It is not easy to sketch an outline that will accurately suggest his many-sided personality. His writings, as will be seen, are of almost bewildering diversity; while of his conversation—which was far more characteristic—it is impossible to convey even a remote impression. The following memoir therefore, in recognition of this, is rather an attempt to show what work he did, than to indicate (in any fuller manner) what he was.

John Towne Danson was born on February 4, 1817, at Stratford-on-Avon. His father, William Danson, was a solicitor. His mother was a daughter of Charles Towne, a well-known animal and landscape painter, at the end of the eighteenth century. The family left Warwickshire probably before he was six years old, but his early recollections of Stratford remained with him throughout life, and he always returned there with pleasure.

The first serious activity of his mind moved in the direction of philosophy. At twenty he notes that he had read Kant's Critique, "Fichte on the Nature of the Scholar," Locke's "Human Understanding," and Hume's "Treatise," as well as most of the essays. Combe's "Constitution of Man in Relation to External Objects" interested him. "The Constitution of Man," he wrote sixty years later,

"is the fruit of external objects—yet they don't fit. There is the secret. The one characteristic of his condition which most puzzles man, is that everything about him is uneasy. The very sun is out of its fit place—and is going somewhere else."

He was attracted to Reid, by his promise of a "Common-sense Solution," with the not surprising result that after an elaborate analysis of his works, much labour was found to have been wasted; while Dr. Thomas Brown's "Lectures," though easier and pleasanter to read, were found even less profitable. The orderly scheme of the Universe which they predicated would not bear much weight being thrown upon it, and was not ultimately satisfying to an analytical mind. Berkeley strongly and lastingly influenced his mental attitude.—"He, with Hume, satisfied me." Mill he knew personally. "I rather think," he wrote in later years, "that though that (the personal intimacy) led me to like him, it diminished my respect for his mental powers."

A letter, written in 1837, gives an account of his boyish impression of O'Connell—then looming largely in the public mind:—

"O'Connell stood at the upper end of the room, to the left of the chair—with folded arms—in a broad-brimmed hat, and buttoned surtout, burly and consequential. The solid amplitude of his person, and the undaunted firmness and self-possession of his attitude harmonising well with my preconceived ideas of the man's mental and moral character."

O'Connell made a speech on this occasion, "paving the way with a good deal of blarney," observed the boy contemptuously, who regarded what followed as little more than unworthy hedging. All his life Mr. Danson deeply distrusted appeals to sentiment, which showed the smallest deviation from a firm basis of fact. Brilliant oratory, except as the instrument of the very few, he regarded almost as a form of black magic, to be resisted by those who would see clearly

and sanely. Yet perhaps no other form of expression attracted him so powerfully.

Amongst other letters of this time is one written at a period of youthful radicalism, dated "November 9th, 5 o'clock p.m., 1837." Its occasion was a visit of Queen Victoria to the City. It is a curious picture of London, and of a boy's mind:—

"I sallied out, down Holborn, and turned down Farringdon Street. The fog had cleared off a little, and the sky behind, blue and brilliant, looked scarcely the worse for its covering. It seemed like a pretty face under a thin veil; its beauties less apparent, but more soft, bright, and shadowy.

"There are in this street one or two places used as headquarters for the stage waggons—the old six-horsed Saxon wains, with low broad wheels and hoop canopies. When laden and in motion they look like haystacks covered with tarpaulin, and rumbling on wheels. They have a tremendous difficulty to surmount on starting—to get up Holborn Hill. I have often watched them here—seen all the muscles of eight stout horses on the stretch for seven or eight minutes, to move one of these wains a distance of about thirty yards. Just at the bottom of the hill, Holborn is very narrow and continues so as far as the end of Farringdon Street. This is perhaps the most crowded spot in London at all hours of the day. Just here, all the omnibuses running on this line east and west, stop and take up and let down passengers. It is the only approach to Holborn from the east if we except the narrow lanes running up from Fleet Street, such as Shoe Lane, Fetter Lane, etc. Here the tide of population seems compressed into bounds too narrow to afford it a free passage. Here people are constantly pushing and jostling each other, and there are within the space of thirty yards more narrow escapes from being trampled to death or run over, than at any place in London. At the bottom of the hill on the left-hand side, and where the passage gets narrow, there is a very narrow lane—too narrow for any species of vehicle wider than a

wheelbarrow. This passage contains more than fifty places for the sale of second-hand pocket-handkerchiefs. It is the pickpockets' *dépôt*. Nothing else is sold. The shops are completely open, and nearly all alike, each having an iron pipe jutting from the front, with a flame of gas spouting out horizontally and about a foot long. The handkerchiefs are all hung by the corners, in clusters, of all colours, and apparently to the number of many thousands—a few of unique pattern or superior material are spread out, and the vendors stand outside, or in the doorways, some with their hands rammed in their pockets, others picking marks out of handkerchiefs, smoking, or joking. About fifty yards up this—Field Lane—branching off to the right in the direction of Smithfield, is a street full of low lodging-houses—beds at 1d., 2d., and 3d., a night—the roosting-place of some hundreds of men, women, and children who during the day roam about the city begging and thieving. There is here about an acre of as pure want, vice, and misery, as I ever saw or conceived. I wish it could be cut out, whole and untouched—like a sod from a hillside—and exhibited to those who preach about an over-ruling Providence: the pious 'things as they are' men, the 'all for the best' noodles; but especially to the warm and comfortable, reflective and benevolent of our species, they who know Misery only by her portrait, or at most her shadow. The latter, entrenched in the chilling, damning defences of prejudice, would perhaps greet it with a stupid stare of mingled surprise and selfishness, and allude to their charities—Public Charities—institutions which hold about the same position to public misery, want, and wretchedness, as the Sinking Fund to the National Debt, and are about as likely to remove or mitigate the evil. I wish every human being who always knows where to get his next meal could look for one hour in his life upon such scenes as these.

"On getting to the bottom of Farringdon Street I found a strong barrier thrown across about thirty yards from the line

of Fleet Street. The monuments of Wilkes and . . . were already occupied—crowded—inside the railings and out; the footways too were filled, and in the centre of the street—(Ludgate Hill and Fleet Street) was a thick moving crowd—jostling and pushing and staring at the preparations for illuminations in the evening. When I had forced my way into the centre I looked down Fleet Street. The windows were all filled, and thirty or forty Union Jacks of all sizes hung out of the garret windows. In some cases they were slung, three or four together, upon a line across the street from one house to another, after the most approved Irish fashion of drying clothes in narrow streets. Up Ludgate Hill I pushed, over heaps of gravel, and through a herd of humans of all varieties of clothing and cleanliness. All the shop-fronts were protected by planking to the height of four or five feet, and tiers of seats erected behind. These were chiefly occupied by women, and as the price was here in no case less than one guinea (according to reports), I took this as a favourable opportunity for inspecting the physiognomy and general appearance of a great number of individuals, little exposed to general view, seldom submitted to critical inspection, and scarcely ever so regularly and numerously packed together, and presented so closely to the public gaze. On the right-hand side going up Ludgate Hill, I did not see (out of more than three hundred women), five whose faces bore a really rational expression. Pride, vanity, narrow prejudice, affectation, and coquetry had set their broad seals everywhere. Generally they might be thus divided: the silly, the sour, and the vain. The elders were more fruitful of good than the juniors. Two or three old women struck me as very estimable characters; they looked benevolent and motherly, kind and indulgent. Some were withered, as with care or the canker of bad feeling, and others with pimply features and expressionless eyes, looked piggish, sensual, and disgusting.

“The preparations for lighting up, I thought, very paltry

and totally devoid of taste. Shreds of tawdry trash which had lain for years in a lumber-room, and some hundreds of little pots of oil with floating wicks, twisted and arranged into divers expressions of one slavish sentiment, the materials and the use worthy of each other. The front of St. Paul's Churchyard, and all round to the right into Cheapside, was filled up with seats and canopies of red something; the houses filled at every window, and many people were on the lofty cornices of St. Paul's. The people in the middle of the street were of the most miscellaneous description, many evidently from the suburbs and outskirts of London: Jews, butchers, pickpockets, fishwomen, drapers, clerks freed from the desk, bucks, beggars, and piemen. 'Tarts, two a penny, who won't buy!' rang in my ears along Cheapside, and about the Mansion House; heap after heap, all equally cheap and tempting—a plentiful supply for the 'great unwashed,' as their rulers call them. To avoid the crowd on coming back, I turned down a narrow lane by the Mansion House, and in a dirty street, quiet and deserted, I saw a dog's-meat man, with his barrow of boiled horseflesh, which he was employed at the moment in cutting into convenient slices. I couldn't help stopping to look at him, he seemed Honesty personified. Here in obscurity, unnoticed by the world, he contentedly followed his calling, sold his carrion openly, candidly exposed it to public view, sold it for what it was, and felt himself an honest man; while within a hundred yards, some forty or fifty others were vending the same article in a base disguise, wrapped in the filthy covering of an oz. of paste, thus reaping the profits of a universal vice—deception. It looked like an epitome of Society in its widest sense—modest rectitude sinking into oblivion, and brazen vice brawling and flaunting abroad wrapped in mystery."

His views on education, written at almost the same time, are interesting. He had come upon the bas-relief of Zanthippus in the British Museum:—

“He (Zanthippus) is represented as holding a human foot elevated in his right hand, which he offers to the notice of two children whom he would appear to be instructing. I couldn’t avoid reflecting upon the difference between the present modes of instruction, and that so evidently in use among the ancient Greeks, and the contrast between them in point of rationality. Here is a philosopher delivering (orally) simple lessons in a familiar manner to children, his words being illustrated by a good representation of the thing spoken of. How . . . many are engaged in the task of education at the present day? Where is ease, familiarity, or simplicity perceptible in the dull, heavy succession of tasks through which children in the present age must either fag with much mental pain, or be dragged by brute force.”

Mr. Danson was nevertheless rather theoretical than practical in teaching. He was prone to disregard, as needless or non-existent, the mental attitude of the pupil, unless it fell easily into line and pace with his own, which naturally enough, unless he was dealing with mature minds, was not often the case. On the other hand, to a listener able to keep up with him,—an exercise which was apt to cause at times a feeling of breathlessness in all but the most alert,—his influence was profoundly stimulating.

Statistics, purely as a method of expression always gave him great pleasure. Figures were a medium, in which he worked congenially, and expressed himself easily. Here, at any rate, he felt himself on firm ground. “How much of our knowledge, so called, is but hearsay, lightly received, though often stoutly held—how few of those who think they think, do ever think at all.”

His own words, written in 1859, on “What I deem the Proper Method and true Range of Statistical Investigation,” are of value to all who use the statistical material he has left behind him—as showing the spirit in which he worked.

“First, to define ‘statistics.’ This is not needless. So far as I am aware, no definition of the term has yet been put forth with authority sufficient to command general acceptance; nor have I yet met with any that satisfies me. Were a definition sought in common usage, we might be led to infer that it signifies nothing more worthy of our attention than the art of plausibly enforcing any proposition whatever by a tabular array of figures. Turning from common to correct usage, we find it to be, practically, the art of bringing facts within the range of mathematical computation. High authorities have indeed claimed for it the rank of a science. And, in this point of view, Quetelet, one of its most ardent and successful cultivators, claims for it the distinction of being at once the last born, and the most universally applicable of the sciences. . . . The methods of statistics are, simply, those necessary to bring any observed facts logically within the scope of mathematical computation. If this be so, it need scarcely be added that the most arduous and important labour of the true statist precedes his use of figures. . . . Finally, every statistical statement should be accompanied by sufficient means of verification. Though personal authority cannot here be said to have no place, its proper limits must always be narrow, and should always be clearly marked, and observed. To ask, or to place, no reliance upon the statistical statements of those who have proved their fitness to be so trusted, would be to deprive such statements of a great part of their value. They would cease to economise the labour of future inquirers. To verify figures, we must at least know by what process, and whence, they were obtained. Though all figures may not require to—all should be capable of—submission to that test. And the absence of means of such verification may be reasonably accepted as evidence that the figures so presented are not entirely trustworthy. The reason is obvious. An unsound conclusion is readily detected. Confronted with its premises, it escapes only by a lack of

logical acumen in those to whom it is presented. But a false statement of facts—especially when veiled by the transition from the concrete to the abstract, implied in a purely statistical statement—may pass muster under any examination short of a direct comparison of the figures with the facts they are put forward to represent.

“Every statistical statement, then, to comply with the conditions of the art of which it professes to be an example, must be *intelligible, precise, full, and susceptible of verification.*

“ . . . Such I conceive to be the true method of statistical investigation. . . . The method has been discredited. Sound statistics commonly involve severe labour; and when unsound, and so framed with ease, they are to most observers, equally imposing. Hence they commonly are unsound, and are deservedly distrusted. The remedy for this must, I fear, be very slow, for it can come only through a better knowledge of the method itself, of its requirements, and of its legitimate results. . . . From the so-called ‘practical’ men we can look for little aid for a long time to come. They are, and always will be, more disposed to reject than to reform anything once marked as defective. They demand immediate results, and would rather be led astray plausibly than put through a laborious path to the truth.”

He was always, when engaged in such work, keenly alive to the risk of error, coming from within. He knew how dangerous to perfect accuracy is an absorbing interest. Aware of “the tendency of the exclusive contemplation of any particular set of causes to warp the judgment in its estimate of their comparative influence,” he wrote on another occasion, “and not hoping to escape this source of error, I desire to place the results of my labours in such a form as will best enable those who may think fit to examine, to use, or to add to them, to test the validity of every inference I venture to draw.”

## II

On the 21st of January, 1846, the *Daily News* appeared for the first time, with Charles Dickens as the editor. Mr. Danson was on the staff, undertaking the economic, political, and finance departments, and was to write the second leader. It was on Free Trade; and as the whole article is an exposition of the opinions he held as to it, all through his life, quotation from it may perhaps not be out of place:—

“Experience has proved, again and again, that legislative protection cannot permanently improve the natural condition of any branch of industry; and it is now equally certain that when attempts of this kind are made, the ill results of their failure cannot be confined to any particular class or section of society. All are, therefore, equally concerned in bringing to a close an artificial system which, beginning in fallacies, can only end in disappointment.

“Singularly enough, those branches of our commerce which have been least affected by law, have invariably thriven the best. And where ‘protection’ has been given to their early growth, they have never, in any instance, known steady prosperity till they got rid of it. No accidental concurrence of circumstances even, has ever favoured the protective principle with success. It is alien to common sense; and even the fickleness of fortune disowns it.”

It was late at night on the 20th, when he took his copy to the printing office. It was fortunate he happened to go himself, for Dickens, who was to have written one of the other leaders, was unexpectedly prevented from doing so. There was no time to lose. Mr. Danson sat down and without delay, wrote the article which appeared as the third leader next morning. The errors of the printing show the haste with which it was set up. Like its predecessor, it is against Protection. It was the subject which came most readily; the

air was full of it at the time, and the *Daily News* was desirous of entering the world with a clear statement of its convictions. The speed with which it was produced gave it vitality, and it is a breezier article than its predecessor on the same page. Detail seems to have come readily to mind. Mr. Danson had a curiously minute memory. He rarely forgot a date, or the circumstances connected with it, and he had a hawk-like sense—and satisfaction—in detecting small inaccuracies.

Lord Ashburton, a moderate protectionist, had in a speech at Winchester, two nights before, imprudently stated that “protection had existed in England from the days of the Plantagenets,” and had concluded by affirming that “he had no hesitation in saying that to withdraw protection from agriculture would produce in this country a great social revolution, and a vast change in the fortunes of everybody.”

This was stimulating, and Mr. Danson attacked the subject with zeal. “The protectionists,” he wrote, “are certainly at last approaching that unenviable condition to which the gods conduct men marked for destruction. . . . The ‘days of the Plantagenets’ closed with the day of Bosworth Field, A.D. 1485. Substantially there was no restriction on the importation of wheat, either then or for nearly a century afterwards. A previous law, that of 1463, which prohibited importation till the home price exceeded 6s. 8d., was totally inoperative. The Act of 1562 only raised the limit of prohibition to 10s., and at both rates it was precluded from having any protective influence by the fact that we produced more corn at home than we could consume. Down nearly to the last quarter of the eighteenth century we not only regularly exported wheat, but were *the largest exporters in Europe.*”

“The Act of 1774, passed at the solicitation of the agricultural interest of that day, was intended to limit the imports which began to be required in this country when the rapid increase of our population which followed the Peace of

Paris (1763), had absorbed the home supply, and our exports were, therefore, ceasing. But under it wheat came in at a duty of 6d. a quarter, when the price rose to 48s.; and *exports were prohibited when the price exceeded 44s.* In 1791, the landowners obtained more 'protection,' but the Act of that year imposed only 2s. 6d. duty when the price rose to 50s., and 6d. when it reached 54s. This was the state of the law down to 1797, and from that period to 1815, the Corn Laws, as Lord Ashburton knows, had no operation whatever in practice.

"We understand his lordship to claim for agriculture the benefits of the *precedents* to be found in our corn legislation prior to 1815. We do not think he would have made the claim if he had known what it amounted to.

"For our part, by way of holding out a hand to the landlords in their present distress, we have no objection to go back either to the law of 1791 or to that of 1773.

"That of 1773 admitted wheat at a merely nominal duty when the price reached 48s.

"That of 1791 admitted it at 2s. 6d. when the price was 50s., and at a nominal duty when it rose to 54s.

"The law of 1842 imposes a duty of 20s. while the price is under 51s., and of 18s. when it reaches 54s.; and finally reserves the nominal duty of 1s. until the price is 73s.

"If Lord Ashburton and his fellow-protectionists are really willing to make the exchange, we hope they will say so at once; for there can be no doubt that such a settlement of the matter, proposed by themselves, would, at this moment, save both the Ministry and the country a vast deal of trouble."

The Government of Sir Robert Peel was, during 1844-5-6, attacked mainly on matters of a statistical character—notably, the result of the Corn Laws on prices, and the effect of the Sugar Duties. In the *Globe*, then the organ of the Whig Government, and elsewhere, Mr. Danson had worked

continuously in making these disputed subjects clear to the general reader.

In 1846, he was on the Council of the Statistical Society in London. Two years later he was elected a foreign member of the Société d'Economie Politique de Paris, where to the end of his life he was better known than in London as a statistician.

In 1847, he read a paper before the Statistical Society on "The Accounts of the Bank of England under the Operation of the Act 7 and 8 Vict. cap. 32—from Sept., 1844, to Sept. 1846." "A careful consideration . . . of the Bank accounts for the past two years, in conjunction with those of the twelve years immediately preceding, which embraces all the more remarkable instances of danger charged by the supporters of the Act of 1844 to the indiscretion of the Bank, appears to lead to the conclusion that the provisions of that Act are not sufficient to prevent the recurrence of similar events." Its object was to place on record, in a collected form, the principal facts necessary to a just appreciation of the influence of the Act upon the business of the Bank of England during this period. Its purpose—stated shortly—was to show that the Act had not so far had any real effect, and that when it should have, it would in all probability have to be suspended. This actually took place, for when it began to operate, under circumstances contemplated by Sir Robert Peel, it was suspended by the Government, as the only apparent means of arresting a commercial panic, which, particularly in the corn trade, was causing the downfall of great mercantile houses.

On the 10th of May, 1847, the first general discussion was held, touching the working of the Act. The Chancellor of the Exchequer, on Peel's behalf, challenged a discussion of its practical effect in an incidental motion for a grant of £8,000,000, for relieving the distress in Ireland consequent on the potato famine of the previous year. Mr. Masterman, on behalf of the

bank ; Mr. William Brown, of Liverpool, representing the American trade ; and Mr. Baring, in defence of the Act, opened the discussion. Disraeli, always glad to have an opportunity of harassing Peel in a speech, made a long and elaborate attack, based on Mr. Danson's figures, to show that if the Act had been in operation, it would not have prevented any of the evils attending the demand for gold in 1836 and 1839 ; and characteristically ended by saying that "it (the Bank Act) was indeed a measure under the operation of which it seemed as if they had locked their treasure in the coffers of the Bank and thrown the key into the river Thames."

This was replied to by Peel, in a speech longer than all the rest of the discussion. The paper, with the whole of the debate, was reprinted in the *Banker's Magazine*, June, 1847.

In the Trinity Term of the same year, Mr. Danson was called to the Bar at the Middle Temple.

Shortly afterwards, Disraeli sent him an oral message by his brother-in-law as to his want of a private secretary, with an intimation of a wish for his assistance. This was declined. D'Israeli's temperament was one essentially repellent to him ; and it is improbable that under any circumstances they could have worked cordially together. His sympathies and energies too were actively employed on behalf of the Whig party. He was then acting, and had been since early in 1844, as private secretary to Mr. Benjamin Hawes, the member for Lambeth and Under-Secretary for the Colonies.

Mr. Hawes had all along been a firm supporter of the system of Penny Postage. After its introduction in 1840, it underwent severe and prolonged vicissitudes at the hands of its opponents. It was at his house, during the struggle with Colonel Moberley and the Treasury, that Rowland Hill and Mr. Danson became acquainted with one another.

III

England had for some time been passing through a series of extraordinary economic changes. Great fluctuations had taken place in the supply of food, and the country had in comparatively short periods undergone unusual alternations of depression, of excitement, and of prosperity. The year 1843 had had a bad pre-eminence as one of commercial discredit ; its mercantile and banking disasters being unparalleled in extent, since the great revulsions of credit and widespread commercial failures of 1825. In 1839, Thomas Tooke had completed the third volume of his "*History of Prices*"; these fresh phenomena called, he considered, "for a historical record of them. . . . But," so he wrote in the preface to the fourth volume, "I recoiled at the idea of the labour it would entail. . . ." He deemed it important "that whatever I might determine to publish should be completed by, or soon after, the meeting of Parliament, at the usual time of its assembling ; because if the information I had to impart was calculated to be of any use, it would be more especially so by being available in the discussions and inquiries to which, in the state of things which I contemplated, the subject would give rise.

"But to accomplish such a work, doing anything like justice to it, within so limited a time (for I had not written a line, or made any other preparation for it, till near the middle of August), would hardly have been within my power at any time, and must, at my time of life, have been out of the question. I should therefore have abandoned my task in despair, had not my friend Mr. Danson, while he strongly urged me to undertake the task, offered his assistance towards the performance of it. . . . Of his offer I gladly availed myself ; and the assistance which he has afforded in enabling me to bring out this volume has been to me of inestimable value.

"He has supplied the whole of the elaborate and accurate statistical statements and tables in the work, with the ex-

ception of the small number in the 11th section of the third division (namely, that on the seasons and the corn trade); the description of the character of the seasons, and their relative productiveness, and the conjectural opinion of the probable future range of prices, are mine. For the statements of prices and quantities, and the reasoning upon these, I am indebted to Mr. Danson. To him, likewise, I owe the contribution of by far the greater part of the second division of the book, on the prices of produce other than corn. And he has afforded me the further essential service of conducting the whole of the work through the press."

The quotation from Mr. Tooke's book is given at some length. Mr. Danson threw his whole mind into this work; and many years later, when at leisure, he attempted to continue it to the end of the nineteenth century. His unfinished chart and plates, the fruit of long and arduous labour, are reproduced in this volume as he left them.

#### IV

The spring of 1848 was spent in Paris, whither he was attracted by the remarkable political condition under the Provisional Government. He had taken with him introductions from the Board of Trade and from the Foreign Office. The Minister of Commerce thereupon readily gave him access to the manuscript records of the French Commerce which were in the hands of the Government, and further presented him with a copy of the printed records. After a careful examination of the material thus placed before him, he suggested to the Board of Trade the expediency of publishing similar accounts. This was done, and for more than thirty years later, he continued to receive, every month, a copy.

He left Paris on the eve of the outbreak, but as he stayed

there up to that time, he had some experience of the conditions of life in a great city shaken by the throes of a revolution. One day, when walking through the Place de Carrousel, he found himself in the midst of a mob, which was being roughly dispersed by troops, their muskets loaded with ball cartridge. On another occasion, when returning late, he was stopped—all traffic having been suspended—and was obliged to spend the night on some straw in the street with the Guard. His friends, non-combatants and ladies, had a little later to seek security in the large cellars generally to be found in the older Paris houses. It is to be regretted that he did not note more fully his impressions at this time.

What he did write during his stay in Paris was a paper afterwards read before the Statistical Society, on “The Progress of the Foreign Commerce of France during the Reign of Louis Philippe: 1830–1848.” The materials for this were largely obtained from a close analysis of “*Le Tableau Général du Commerce de la France avec ses Colonies et les Puissances Etrangères.*” From this he drew the following general conclusions, which are not without their significance at present:—

1. That the exports of French manufactured produce, which are encouraged by bounties, and which formed, alike at the beginning and at the end of the period in view, about two-sevenths (in value) of this class of exports, appear by these accounts to have increased in their aggregate value by rather more than 50 per cent.

2. That the remainder of the exports of this class—not so stimulated—also increased in value, in the aggregate, by about 50 per cent; and

3. That the greater part, by far, of the general increase of value is traceable, distinctly, to the exportation of articles which receive no special protection from the State, but to which the personal skill and taste of the artisans of France are acknowledged to impart a peculiar value.

This was followed by another paper "On the Fluctuations of the Annual Supply and Average Price of Corn in France during the last Seventy Years, considered with particular reference to the Political Periods of 1792, 1814, 1830, and 1848." It dealt mainly with the supply of bread in France during the previous seventy years, and tended to show that the price of bread in Paris had in those years been such as alone to form a disturbing factor in the politics of the time. In other words, that the downfall of Louis XVI., the defeat of Napoleon, and, subsequently, the dethronement of Charles X. and Louis Philippe, were all precipitated, and in great part caused, by the high price of food in France, and especially in Paris, at these times.

"There is an idea, the origin of which does not seem to lie within the range of history, but which is proverbial in many languages, and has been expressly sanctioned by the authority of almost every great writer on the policy of nations, that mankind are first and most powerfully affected, in their social and political affairs, by the degree of ease with which they obtain their food. Hitherto the soundness of this idea seems to have been rather taken for granted than proved. And, assuming its soundness, it does not appear to have been yet turned to any practical use commensurate with its importance."

The tables which were drawn up for this pamphlet Mr. Danson deemed to be "strongly suggestive of the conclusion that the history of prices (especially as it regards the food of the people) may, in the order of practical importance to mankind, take precedence of the history of politics."

Not long after the publication of these figures, the present system was established in Paris, by which a large supply of bread stuffs is kept constantly in the city, and the bakers, formed into a syndicate, are allowed to make an extra charge in years when corn is cheap, so as to compensate them for a reduced price when it is dear.

In 1848, he read a paper before the Statistical Society, entitled "A Contribution towards an Investigation of the Changes which have taken place in the Condition of the People of the United Kingdom during the eight years extending from the harvest of 1839 to the harvest of 1847; and an attempt to develop the connexion (if any) between the changes observed and the variations occurring during the same period in the prices of the most necessary articles of food."

It was written to start the discussion of the natural periodicity of prices of articles of common consumption, and to trace a direct relation between the varying spots on the sun and the political movements of nations—as first suggested by Dr. Hyde Clarke. "The subject is not now of the importance that it was at the time it was written. Steam and Free Trade"—so commented its author in 1896—"have opened to us the harvests of the whole world; the food scarcities which often upset thrones, and unpeopled countries, have become impossible, and other causes of good and evil fortune, in communities, have assumed more importance." Since he thus wrote, the political outlook with regard to freedom of trade has greatly altered, a reaction which Mr. Justin McCarthy, writing in 1881, deemed as improbable as one "against the Rule of Three."

The paper is further of interest, in that it gives in tabular form many figures relating to the material condition of the poorer classes anterior to the official Blue Books. Hitherto it has only been printed for private circulation; it is now reproduced at the end of this volume.

Lord Brougham had about this time, or a little earlier, instituted a Society for "the Amendment of the Law," to which most of the younger barristers, particularly those on the Liberal side, belonged. It appointed a Commission to consider the expediency of adopting in Britain the French system—begun in 1789, and completed by Napoleon—of recording the ownership of land, for the purposes of registra-

tion and conveyance, and the production of a cadastral survey to be kept in each locality, which should form a general map of the kingdom. The scheme, which is still in course of completion, presupposed that every separate plot or parcel of land brought under its operation should be delineated upon a public map, which was to be accompanied by a register giving further needful particulars. Mr. Danson, who was the Secretary under Colonel Dawson, the head of the Tithe Commission, wrote the report, "destroying," as he half-humorously remarked, "much of the profits of conveyancing, to which I had devoted myself."

In the same year (1848) Sir William Molesworth, one of the group of men nicknamed "philosophical Radicals," attacked the Whigs on their Colonial expenditure—which was, he urged, very excessive—in a speech made on the 25th of July. Mr. Hawes replied in defence of it. But it was found impossible to bring within the possible limits of a speech anything like a full answer to the inaccuracy and incompleteness of many of his statements. Mr. Danson, at the request of Lord Grey, then Colonial Secretary, wrote one in the form of a long pamphlet.

Sir William Molesworth had carried in the House a Resolution declaring, "That it is the opinion of this House that the Colonial expenditure of the British Empire demands inquiry with a view to its reduction; and to accomplish this reduction, and to secure greater contentment and prosperity to the Colonists, they ought to be invested with large powers for the administration of their local affairs."

The debate took place at a time when our Colonial responsibilities bore heavily upon us. Canada had only recently been pacified after the insurrection; we were ending one of our numerous Kaffir wars, and were fighting with the tribes in New Zealand. The Australian colonies, growing stronger, were clamouring for self-government. Molesworth, with Hume and Cobden, pressed for a reduction of Colonial ex-

penditure, urging that economy could be effected and the prosperity of the Colonies secured by allowing them, at their own cost, to govern themselves.

Many of the Tories, too, were keenly opposed to the current expenditure, but were not ready with any remedies. Like Disraeli, they regarded the Colonies as "millstones round our necks," which, sooner or later, must become independent.

The Government, with Lord Grey at the Colonial Office, were proceeding with caution in the direction of freedom for the Colonies, as they reached what might be deemed maturity, from Home control.

Sir William Molesworth attacked, as reckless extravagance, our direct expenditure on account of the Colonies, though it then amounted to but £4,000,000 per annum, whilst the declared value of the British produce and manufactures exported thither was £9,000,000. He held that our duty to them began and ended with their protection against foreign aggression; that they were, one and all, capable of self-government at their own cost; that they should therefore be entrusted with it, subject to the reservation "of those powers the exercise of which would be absolutely inconsistent with the sovereignty of this country, or might be directly injurious to the interests of the whole Empire."

Mr. Danson subjected Sir William's facts, figures, and deductions to a searching criticism. He showed that the estimated annual outlay of £4,000,000 covered a large expenditure for purely Imperial purposes—that spent on naval and military stations being needful for the protection of our commercial highways, which, he maintained, our merchants were entitled to demand. "To withhold such protection, then, not being possible, how can we best render it, how most efficiently and cheaply? By leaving the highways of our shipping, as we left the highway near London a century ago, and dealing with every case of depredation as it arises—by revenging the injury when committed, if we can, or by so

diminishing, constantly, the chances of successful wrong as to prevent its committal? All experience tends to prove the latter to be the cheaper course, and also the wiser in other respects. . . . Thus, so far as our trade abroad needs protection, even assuming that we are free to give or to withhold it in point of justice to those most nearly concerned, the question, as one of commercial expediency, resolves itself after all into the very simple one—whether the want can be most economically supplied by vessels fitted for the purpose and bearing the flag of the most powerful maritime state in the world, or by each trader being left to take care of himself.”

He challenged the correctness of the value of the trade to the Colonies being then only £9,000,000 per annum, pointing out that this sum only included the declared value at the home port of articles of British production exported to the Colonies, whilst, in fact, the trade included our profits on all exports, whether of British production or not; that it also included the profits of shipowners, and that the imports from the Colonies were as valuable to us as the exports.

On the main points of Sir William’s argument Mr. Danson contended that it was impossible to act on the general principle that every colony was at all times capable of self-government. He was fully in sympathy with the granting of representative government to every colony which showed itself able to use it wisely, but he insisted on the duty of the mother-country to protect the interests of future colonists in undeveloped lands.

“A hundred, a thousand, or five thousand men, settled under the British flag at the mouth of a river which drains a territory as large as the United Kingdom cannot be regarded as fit recipients of the power of making all laws for the internal rule of that territory. Let it be considered that they are but the first few thousands of many coming from the same source, and equally entitled to appropriate and make use of the land of the colony, and to develop and derive profit

from every natural advantage it possesses not fairly absorbed in supplying the wants of their predecessors. So much of the unappropriated land as cannot yet be profitably handed over to individual control justly remains in the custody of the sovereign power in trust for future comers; it cannot, with propriety, be placed elsewhere. When and how it shall be disposed of, and what shall be done with the proceeds, are questions, as repeated experience has proved, of higher importance to the future welfare of the colony than any others whatever; and these, it is well known, cannot be left to the decision of the first small and immature communities without incurring imminent risk of postponing indefinitely the application of labour and capital to the land in the proportions alone consistent with any measure of prosperity for the colony. In all such instances (and every young colony affords one) self-government as defined by Sir W. Molesworth would mean the renunciation, at home, of all care for future settlers, and, in the colony, the substitution of scattered squatting for a gradual extension of the cultivated districts, the buying and selling of land for its reclamation and use, and rapid alternations of speculative prosperity and adversity, of the elation and despair of mere gambling for the steady and equable progression which alone constitutes a real advance."

Mr. Danson foresaw the impossibility of granting self-government, and at the same time of maintaining by law freedom of trade within the Empire. "Sir W. Molesworth says we should retain our present freedom of trade with the Colonies even if they became independent states. Perhaps so; but it may, with some show of reason, be doubted, upon evidence pointed to by Sir William himself. He offers the United States as instances of independent colonies, and afterwards affirms that 'the rate of consumption of our goods . . . amounts to 8s. a head in the United States, and to £1 12s. a head in our other colonies'; a difference which instantly induces reference to the United States tariff, which imposes,

on all the principal descriptions of British goods, import duties of from 30 to 50 per cent. *ad valorem*.

“States so enlightened and powerful, whose production aptitudes are obviously not such as to clash with ours under a natural system, acting thus, it cannot be deemed very improbable that others should do the same.”

But although difficulties were clear to him, Mr. Danson fully recognised the justice, and, indeed, the necessity, of granting self-government to any colony that could show conclusively its fitness to have it. “With the progress of time the need for interference diminishes. As each community advances from the loose and miscellaneous elements of its first formation towards that state of maturity in which the various orders of a compact and civilised community are developed, the fund of stability, common sense, and honesty, available for the management of its public affairs becomes such as to render the withholding of a due measure of self-government both inexpedient and difficult.”

Both the speech and the pamphlet show very remarkably the difficulties with which the founders of our Colonial policy had to deal. The country had to choose between attempting to retain the Colonies as free exporting ground for our merchants, or of reconciling the Colonies to the Empire, by entrusting them with self-government.

In order that he might the better do this work, Mr. Danson obtained full access to the manuscript records of the Colonial Office. When it was finished, he pointed out to Lord Grey that a useful report might, from them, be drawn up, showing the progress of the Colonies from 1827 to 1846. He was asked to do so, and the resulting paper was read before the Statistical Society early in 1849. It was, at Lord Grey's suggestion, printed in quarto, and sent to the Secretary of each of our Colonies as a model for their Annual Returns for the future—together with a despatch to each government from Lord Grey, this paper became the basis of the Colonial Annual Reports—

bringing them all into a common form, and including everything of a commercial character. It is appended to the end of this volume.\*

# V

In the early autumn of 1849, he read a paper before the Statistical Society, "On the Progress of Emigration from the United Kingdom during the last thirty years, with reference to the growth of the Population during the same Period." It called attention to the fact that the growth of the home population during the period from 1821 to 1849, measured by the addition made to it in successive periods of the year, had been declining; while the numbers emigrating, similarly compared, had increased, and "that a continuance of the double process must, at no distant period, involve an actual diminution of the home population." These deductions have not been justified, as a reference to more recent census returns will show.

France still held his attention as a country of whose methods in commercial matters England might wisely take note; and in June, 1850, he read a paper, again before the Statistical Society of London, on "The Foreign Commerce of France during the reign of Louis Philippe."

It was about this time that a life-long friendship began with M. Michael Chevalier. Mr. Danson visited him at his cottage at Versailles, where he was practically hiding, having come into collision with the Provisional Government. "I found

\* It is interesting to note the value of British produce and manufactures exported to the British Possessions in 1846, and to compare them with those of 1894.

			1846.	1904.
North American Group	..	..	£3,308,059	£11,112,597
West Indian Group	..	..	2,505,587	2,895,766
African Group	..	..	902,599	20,933,534
East Indian Group	..	..	6,744,687	49,965,498
Australian Group	..	..	1,495,364	23,688,230
			<u>£14,955,296</u>	<u>£108,595,625</u>

him," noted his guest, "and wandered round his little garden with him, musing on the ups and downs of the 'uncomfortable classes,' whereof he was at once an agent and a victim."

The year 1849 saw the beginning of the Californian gold discoveries. In 1850 it was found in Australia. What the probable effect of this large supply would be, was a question that naturally arose. The only valuable information to be found was a set of accounts appended to Humboldt's "Political History of New Spain," which had been published after his visit to South America at the beginning of the nineteenth century. The figures were those annually sent to the Spanish Government from the mines—all of which were Government property. Humboldt had gathered them as he could, they had been accepted without demur, and confidently relied on. This promised a happy hunting-ground to the analyst of figures; Mr. Danson went through the work critically, and brought out a different result. "It was one of the most important pieces of work I have done," he noted with unabated pleasure, thirty-seven years later. He wrote a paper, endeavouring to show the quantity of gold and silver sent from America to Europe between the discovery of that country in 1492 and 1849, and told the Chevalier Bunsen of the conclusions he had arrived at, who, being a friend of Humboldt's, sent him a copy of the paper.

Later, Bunsen introduced them to each other, which was the beginning of some friendly intercourse, Mr. Danson visiting Baron Humboldt at Potsdam in 1852. This paper has since been adopted as the basis of all calculations requiring such information.

But the work had been done while constantly writing for the *Globe*, then the organ of the Whig Government, of which he was sub-editor, and along with the preparation of the tables for the "History of Prices." The pressure was great, and had been too continuous, and illness of a serious nature became threatening. He was warned of the danger, and in

1851 he left London and all his work, and spent nearly the whole of that year in the Vale of Llangollen, "by which unfortunate event," wrote Mr. Tooke, "I was deprived of zealous and valuable aid, upon which I had relied in no small degree."

A relative was building a house near Llangollen at the time, and days and weeks were passed tranquilly in watching the progress made, in long walks, and in his own household matters. He had taken a small cottage, old and primitive—the upper floor being reached only by a ladder—but picturesque, and having a satisfactory garden where he could sit. Here he established himself, and but for a woman who came daily from a farm near for an hour or two to do the rougher work, lived entirely alone. His experiments in housekeeping and gardening—both matters of which he was singularly ignorant—interested him, and were probably perfect remedies for an over-fatigued mind.

The result was restoration to health. Before the end of the year he returned to London, and intending to make a practice at the Bar, he joined for a time the Oxford Circuit. It was not congenial, being too little connected with the matters in which his interest lay, and in 1852 he joined the Northern Circuit, as more likely to offer an opening for his commercial knowledge. This brought him to Liverpool. The same year he married Eleanor, daughter of Mr. J. G. E. Lockett, of Pen-y-Bryn Hall, Llangollen, whose acquaintance he had made during his stay there.

Increasing work unfortunately brought on in a severe form the illness which had been before threatened, and staved off; this time he lay in a critical condition for some weeks, at the end of which he was ordered to go abroad, with the further injunction that neither book nor pen should be touched for two years. This, said Sir William Lawrence, who had attended him throughout the second illness, could alone bring recovery. In the autumn he and his wife started on a tour which lasted for some months, when, in spite of the

medical prohibition, notes and sketches "were copiously made."

"Having always commerce in view," he wrote later, "we went first up to Amsterdam, as [one of] the most northern of its centres." Venice was its southern counterpart, and thither they travelled leisurely, through Hamburg and Berlin, and the Saxon Switzerland, on to Vienna, over the Julian Alps to Trieste, and so to Venice. From there they slowly wandered home by Verona, Florence, Leghorn, Genoa, Marseilles, and Paris, to London. A considerable portion of the two years had still to run, and a farm of some two hundred and fifty acres was taken, in the Hundred of Wirral, on a long lease. It was a repetition of the country cottage experiment of his batchelor days on a larger scale. It lasted longer and was more successful. By keeping with a fair amount of stringency to the doctor's order, there was no further relapse, and his health remained good to the end of his life.

The two years being over, and complete vigour restored, he was keenly eager to be at work again. He resumed the "History of Prices," and drew up the tables in the fourth volume of the prices of commodities other than corn for the years 1848 to 1856. On sending them to Mr. Tooke he wrote: "When I remember that my own loss of health and consequent retirement to the country alone deprived me of the gratification of assisting you more largely in this work, I recall one of the very few reasons I have for regretting my exchange of the life of a lawyer for that of a farmer."

In 1855 he became a member of the Historical Society of Lancashire and Cheshire, to which belonged many of the more active and thoughtful of the Liverpool merchants, and soon after wrote a paper, anonymously, on the scientific scope of its work entitled, "A Letter to the Members of the Historical Society of Lancashire, by one of themselves," in which he urged this honourable body to more arduous work than they had hitherto done.

“The labours of Science are too heavy to be stimulated with success, and its rewards too real, and too rich, to be fairly won, or safely worn, by the undeserving, . . . we have yet to encounter the duties, and earn the just honours of a scientific society. . . . Do we rightly comprehend the work we would lay our hands on? Are we worthy of it? Are we ready to do it? And do we know how? . . . No special authority have I to ask these questions; but I hold them justified, as they are prompted by that common interest in the purposes we are associated to effect, which all of us have. . . . Hence do they come, as here, with scant preface, and no apology, from an undistinguished member of your body. . . . My purpose, then, is that we undertake, and until tolerably complete, bend all our disposable strength to the formation of a scientific description of the two counties, adequate to the means at our command, and worthy of the age we live in.”

The Society appointed a committee to report on the best method of carrying these suggestions into effect. Greatly to his amusement he was nominated on to it, and voted into the chair. Surmise arose, which soon became certainty, that he was the author of them.

In 1854 he read a paper before the Statistical Society on “Our Commerce with Russia in Peace and War,” showing that while Prussia remained neutral, British efforts to stop commercial intercourse between Russia and the rest of the world could result in little beyond transferring to Prussian ports the greater part of the trade hitherto carried on through the ports of Russia.

“Five Letters on Farming Agreements, by a Tenant Farmer;” a paper on the Weights and Measures in use for the sale of Agricultural Produce; one on Corn Prices in England; one on Agricultural Statistics—were produced before 1856, and mark his interest in his country life. In this year, returning to his old arena, the Statistical Society,

he read a paper on "Slavery and the British Cotton Manufacture," indicating the economic connection between them, and showing that they had grown and been maintained in close reliance upon each other.

The question as to Slavery itself was left untouched. The Statistical Society, it may be remembered, carefully excluded all "opinions from its publications; not assuredly with the view of discouraging the proper use of hypothetical reasoning, but for the purpose of devoting the pages of its transactions to facts, and not to systems."

The paper, which, as subsequent events have shown, was wrong in its deductions, attracted considerable attention in America, and was read again before a meeting of the British Association. Mr. Davenport Hill, a somewhat intimate friend, then Recorder of Birmingham, wrote of it to Lord Brougham: "Danson, the statistician, of Liverpool, read a paper . . . at Cheltenham, proving and emphasising the fact that all but an insignificant proportion of our cotton supply came from the slave States of the Union. The Chairman of the section stopped all discussion of the matter. In this I was much disappointed, as I thought it was imperative to call public attention to so dangerous a state of affairs."

About this time, Mr. Danson prepared a paper "On the Area and Population of Liverpool," showing that the town population on the banks of the Mersey had since 1700, or perhaps a little later, been growing at a rate represented by multiplying the number by  $3\frac{1}{2}$  for each fifty years. Another followed on the population of the Manchester District, and subsequently a series was compiled and read before the Statistical Society, in conjunction with Mr. T. A. Welton.

"Ten Minutes Advice to Directors of Joint Stock Companies," reprinted from the *Globe*, in September, 1858; and one read to the Statistical Society, "Touching the Provision of Country Dwellings for Town Labourers, and in particular those of Liverpool"—were also produced about the same date.

The researches of M. Quetelet, in Belgium, on the growth of the human body, suggested the advisability of similar investigations being made in England. Mr. Danson had much admiration for M. Quetelet's statistical methods and accuracy, but he considered that the work had been carried out with insufficient material—the largest basis of deduction being obtained from some nine hundred men; three hundred at the age of nineteen, the same number at twenty-five, and again at thirty, no information being obtained as to their weight. He therefore obtained from the governor of the borough gaol of Liverpool, particulars as to both the height and weight of nearly 5,000 prisoners of the same ages; and even this number he thought too small to be conclusive. He found, with Quetelet, that growth continued up to the age of thirty, and further showed that the English subject was at eighteen slightly shorter, and at thirty somewhat taller, than the Belgian of the same ages. "There is good reason for supposing," he observed, "that even among men of the same class, and the same habits, in the same locality, those who attain a given age in one year, have not the same, or very nearly the same, average height or weight as those who attain the same age in years preceding or following." The hope of finding the explanation of this, led him to make further investigations with fresh material, the result of which was given to the Statistical Society early in 1881. He followed the suggestion of M. Millot, a French statistician, whose theory was that the differences had relation to the annual prices of corn in the districts, where the men were born and reared; but no sufficient ground was, in Mr. Danson's opinion, found for tracing the anomalies he had met with, to this cause.

## VI

Returning to his work of some years previously, he produced a further paper on the Bank Act of 1844, for the

Liverpool Chamber of Commerce, bringing it down to 1857. A Report on the Exchange Buildings of Liverpool—having reference to their rebuilding—followed in 1858. A paper on the Law as effecting foreign debtors; a report on the Cental, a corn measure since adopted in Liverpool and Sydney; Notes on the Pilotage of the Port of Liverpool; and a pamphlet on the Landowner in relation to the State, brought for some years his casual writing practically to an end; though the part he took in the extended scheme of instruction at the Liverpool Institute, mark his interest at this time in the educational work of the town. The collection is bewildering in its diversity, yet each in itself is a thoughtful study of its own subject. "All I have written has been occasional," he noted in later days, "each is a milestone on life's way." Henceforth, for many years, his scanty leisure was much employed in writing on technical points, chiefly bearing upon marine insurance.

He had, for some time, been watching the working of Marine Insurance with interest. It touched shipping on its political as well as on its commercial side, and was, he thought, at once an accurate and reliable measure of the nation's prosperity and safety, as well as a protection of her capital at sea. He had had no experience of such work; but it occurred to him that a company formed to conduct such business, and acting in Liverpool, was desirable and practicable. Hitherto such insurance had only to a very limited extent been carried on in Liverpool, notwithstanding the importance of the town as a shipping centre; such as was done being conducted through brokers with private underwriters, the remainder being placed in London. Both methods involved much waste of time and money. In 1859, he wrote his first paper on the subject, entitled "Reasons for forming a Marine Insurance Company in Liverpool."

"Fully one half (in value) of all the British produce exported from the United Kingdom, is now shipped from Liverpool. The port has become, incontestably, the first in

the world; and the rate at which its trade has steadily increased, during the last thirty years, justifies the expectation that its pre-eminence will, every year, become more assured and conspicuous. . . . In the natural course of things, the marine insurance arising from the trade of the port, would be effected chiefly on the spot. But it is not so."

He went on to point out the reasons, together with what he considered would be the remedy. Soon after this a number of leading Liverpool merchants, acting on his advice, determined to start a company. It was, however, considered so much of an experiment, that it was deemed desirable to keep in close touch with London, although much Liverpool work was anticipated. It was started in June, 1860, with Mr. Jacob Reynolds, from Lloyd's, as the underwriter of the Liverpool branch, its name being "The Thames and Mersey Marine Insurance Company," Mr. Danson acting as secretary. The result was naturally a complete change in the methods of marine insurance, as hitherto conducted in Liverpool, and many prophecies were made, generally of an unfavourable kind. These were happily unfulfilled.

Mr. Reynolds, after a short career, was compelled to retire, owing to ill-health. The question of a successor now occupied the Board, and several candidates were interviewed. Finally, to Mr. Danson's surprise, the post was offered to him. This, after some deliberation, he accepted; and having now the scope, he threw his whole energy into justifying in practice, the theories he had already put forward. The subsequent growth of the company is the measure of the success he achieved in this direction. "The management of this," so ends his note of this period, "absorbed most of my attention to 1880. It formed the most active and effective part of my career.

His methods were apt to be stern. "An honest man is not always one of the most agreeable of the works of God," he wrote with cheerful understanding, in later days, when the storm and stress of life were over. But those who were

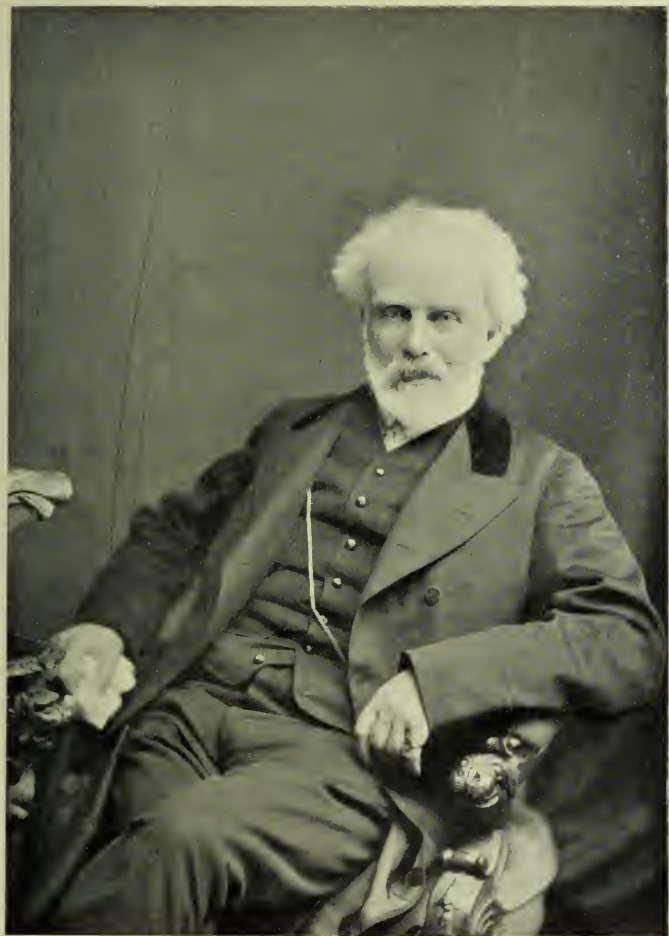
associated most intimately with him and his work for the "Thames and Mersey," and those too who have been actively engaged themselves in the Company's service, know how much was due to his strong will and unflinching courage.

The satisfactory demonstration that marine insurance could flourish in Liverpool led, after the fashion of human nature, to a certain amount of imitation, without due regard to the precautions taken by the earlier workers in the field. Mr. Danson therefore determined to start an annual underwriting review, in order to show that the mere establishment of a company did not necessarily imply a satisfactory result. His labours in this direction, and in the preparation of statistics bearing upon marine insurance, continued throughout his underwriting career, and was a subject of deep interest to him to the end of his life—so much so, that when nearly eighty years of age, he wished to give active underwriters the results of his further investigations. His death occurred whilst he was engaged in collecting the necessary materials.

Marine Insurance did not, however, absorb his whole mental activity. When the Volunteer movement began, it found in him a warm supporter. He joined first the 1st Cheshire Rifle Volunteers, which on its inception had been placed under the command of the late Colonel, then Captain, Vincent King. Not very long afterwards, on going to live on the other side of the Mersey, near Aigburth, he joined the (then) 15th Lancashire Artillery Volunteers—a Corps which had recently been started at Garston. He obtained a Lieutenant's Commission, and subsequently succeeded Captain Tinne in the command of the battery.

## VII

In 1875, the Professor of Political Economy at Queen's College, Liverpool, resigned his chair. It was difficult to fill his place, and there seemed some risk of the subject being



J. T. DANSON, 1880.

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neglected. Rather than let this happen, Mr. Danson, who was then chairman of the Council, offered to deliver a lecture once a fortnight during the session. The Council accepted his offer. Each lecture was printed at the time of its delivery ; the whole being subsequently bound, and forming a small volume entitled "Thirteen Short Lectures on the Political Economy of Daily Life." In 1884, Mr. Danson was asked to revise it for the Clarendon Press ; he then practically re-wrote it, and it was published under the title of "The Wealth of Households."

He was an enthusiastic Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, and spent many days in succeeding summers, investigating the Wall of Hadrian. The recreation was carried out with characteristic minuteness of research, and probably exceeded in exactness the work of William Hutton, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, whom nevertheless on this subject he always regarded as a master. Like Hutton, he walked the whole way. Starting at Wallsend on the East Coast, through varying weather, over the lonely Northumbrian moors, knapsack on back, accompanied by one of his children and a St. Bernard dog, he went on, day after day, often delayed in searching for obscure traces of masonry which had almost disappeared under more than a thousand years of small depredations and English storms. Sketching, measuring,—thus, more than once, he went over the seventy-three miles which at that part of England separate one shore from the other. Later, he followed the even more obscure traces of the Roman earth-work in Scotland.

In later years, when his time was more completely his own, he spent some months in Rome, where unwearied research was bestowed in following up traces of the Gothic invasion in and around the city. Day after day he went fearlessly into the most unhealthy parts of the Campagna,—heedless, sometimes culpably so—of all else but the matter in hand. Time was made, however, for a reverent pilgrimage

to Laurium,—now a fever-stricken collection of hovels, gathered round a depressingly large graveyard—but once the home of the Antonines.

Another source of keen antiquarian interest was the celebrated Barbarini, or Portland vase. As a boy of twenty he had had what he called at the time, his “hypothesis” as to how the white figures were originally produced upon the dark blue surface of the vase, which he wrote at some length to amuse an invalid relative.

“You will be surprised when I tell you that the *vase itself* (independently of its materials and external ornaments),” which he greatly admired at this time, “is a very rude and clumsy-looking thing. It is dumpy and crooked in shape, and its outlines are very irregular. There is nothing either of grace or exactness in its form. . . .

“All this puzzles the Potters, and confounds the Virtuoso— and as great (great by permission or assumption), men and women have wondered for centuries at this mysterious piece of crockery, little men and women do the same—perhaps for custom—or sympathy—or God knows what.”

His description of the celebrated vase is at first sight surprising. It is true it had been badly broken; but having been repaired, it is clear that its original shape could not have been materially altered. A more probable explanation is perhaps found in the taste—French in origin—for “classic” form—which was prevalent in his earlier days, when fashion leant markedly towards more flowing and attenuated forms, to the neglect of specimens showing broader and sturdier lines. To eyes thus trained, the Portland vase would not improbably seem “rude” and “dumpy.”

More than forty years later, he obtained a cast of it, and, still puzzled by its form, of which he now felt the beauty, he tried to find the reason of it by exact methods. The carefulest measurements were taken, and seemed rather barren of result, when one night, in 1879 or 1880, as he

was in his dressing-room getting ready to go to bed, the possibly geometrical basis of the form of the vase came suddenly into his mind. He made some hasty notes, which were verified the next morning. A paper on it, with a diagram, was shortly afterwards communicated to the Society of Antiquaries.

In the autumn of 1880, he retired to Grasmere, where for more than seventeen years he spent a congenially active, tranquil life; and now freed from outside pressure, his mind roved in a large orbit. He cared little for society, but conversation was a source of much enjoyment. Politics he shrank from; his work there had been with an earlier generation.

Physiology interested him greatly, and he read much in this direction. "Let the body be deemed a prison, . . . but let us not forget that even prisons have their economy; or that this economy is quite worthy of our regard, if only for the sake of the prisoner." The hygiene of communities was a subject frequently insisted upon in the early *Globe* days, when the researches of Dr. Southwood Smith, together with those of Drs. Arnott and Kay, were new. As a statistician, the tables of mortality which were often before him, forced painfully, as he records, upon his mind "the long and painful hours of sickness, often bringing destitution and the direst misery in their train; the premature death, bitter grief, and permanent declension of the worldly condition of those left behind, [which] might be prevented by attention to one or two of the simplest pieces of knowledge which we possess. . . . There is good reason to believe that at present we breed and rear, by neglect of ventilation and cleanliness, the greater part of the disease by which deaths are caused in youth and in the prime of life, and that the pauperism of the country receives a very large augmentation from the premature mortality of the working classes, traceable solely to these causes." Thus he wrote in 1846, and it was these considerations that made him urge the provision of

country dwellings for town labourers, before the Statistical Society in 1859.

Psychology attracted him, but it did not lend itself to concrete demonstration sufficiently to be a matter of more than what he was wont to call "gymnastic thought." "To see the Past well is to see the Present better, and even to see somewhat of the Future" probably sums up his opinion of it.

"I had all along been basing my speculations as purely as possible on a physical foundation. Not that I recognised as known, or perhaps knowable, any real distinction between what is called 'matter' and 'spirit,' but as feeling that by and through the consciousness of things physical I had my only sure grasp of things without. I had early adopted the thesis of Berkeley, so far as it negatives the old notion of our having two such entities as 'matter' and 'spirit' to deal with, and puts anything proved and referable to the latter, on the same footing as what comes from the former.

"This thinking through the physical conducted me to . . . my idea of God in all, and all in God; and so led me, from doubting about God, to 'believing' in nothing else, as ultimate. To me He is still the great unknown quantity; and also all the lesser quantities I know; and in His utmost conceivable being, the end of all inquiry." He had Shakespeare's dislike to

"take upon's the mystery of things,  
As if we were God's spies;"

and his early wanderings in this region of thought had settled into what may be called an interested quiescence; its exponent was Marcus Aurelius,—and a much-pencilled copy of the "Meditations" lay always on his dressing-table.

In 1894, current affairs led him to write a book, entitled "Our Next War in its Commercial Aspect." Born at the beginning of 1817, his earliest impressions of war had been of its exhausting consequences, even to the victors. Waterloo



JOHN TOWNE DANSON, 1890.

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had finally closed a long period of strain, which had been relieved earlier by Nelson; but the recovery from the severe taxation, from the heavy call on human life and labour and suffering was slow, and the effects hung for long over England, in a way difficult to realise at this distance of time. Such inevitable forgetfulness was, he felt, in itself a danger to the nation. Napoleon had been a familiar terror of his childish days; our last great naval war was barely a hundred years ago. Yet he had lived to be surrounded by a generation, vulnerable—perhaps in a higher degree than formerly—one which might at any time be faced with the same problem in a more complex form, to whom, from long peace, it was almost an abstract matter. “We all know, and it is often adverted to, that a few days or a month at most, may at any time conduct us to the brink of such a war.” He had no fears as to what the end of it would be; “we wound up the last war full of spirit;” but he strongly desired the navy, when called upon, to be strong enough. “It is too much to expect that it will be quite ready. It never is. It seldom could be. It would be too costly to keep it so.” Our great wars, he urged, will be naval. Marine insurance—that is to say, commercial risks, as recorded at Lloyd’s would, in his opinion, be the indicator of the “precise degree of efficiency (or inefficiency) which our navy shall display in protecting our commerce. . . . With the best possible navy, our unarmed merchantmen cannot go to sea uninsured. That would not be trading, but gambling. . . . All sound insurance, however, is based upon averages derived from the past.” Of what was done at Lloyd’s in those days, there are no printed records, and those in manuscript extremely rare. Fortunately he was able to examine the books of three underwriters, eminent there in the early years of the last century, and found them full of information not to be obtained elsewhere. From these, he prepared elaborate tables, showing our financial position in 1810; a series showing the rates of marine insurance for the

following six years; and a final one comparing the rates and amounts insured, in 1812 and 1892. These figures formed the basis of "Our Next War."

Lloyd's, it may perhaps be explained, is legally known as "The Society formerly held at Lloyd's Coffee House, in the Royal Exchange in the city of London, for the effecting of Marine Insurance." It is long since the Coffee House has ceased to exist. Even in 1804, His Majesty's Secretary of State probably raised a smile, when he wrote, with reference to convoys, "regretting his inability to enter into epistolary correspondence with the waiters at Lloyd's Coffee House." But until comparatively lately, it remained a society of private underwriters, and persistently retained its old constitution. It represents in a collective form, the underwriting interests of the kingdom.

"Our Next War" was quickly followed by a companion volume, "Our Commerce in War." Its argument was that the capture and destruction of private property at sea should cease in the interest of all parties, and that England must necessarily be the exponent of this doctrine. For a long time, too, he had been working steadily at a chart, and corresponding series of diagrams, with which he hoped to bring the work of Mr. Tooke and Mr. Newmarch up to the end of the century. At this he laboured with unflagging zeal, and with good prospects of completing it.

His old age was singularly happy: he was to the last day of his life fully and keenly occupied with varied interests. His almost youthful brightness and buoyancy rarely failed him, while much of the nervous irritability of earlier days, a legacy perhaps from his severe illnesses, was passing away.

"How much there is that I shall never know.

The harvest over—sun about to set—

Yet—pleasant working in the evening glow;

I'll do a little gleaning yet."

Just two years before he died, almost to the day, he wrote to a near relative: "The other morning I woke with the Burial Service in my mind—I believe we ruminate, if not think, in sleep—and I at once reverted to the indiscriminate cant about man's days being few and full of trouble; I felt I was giving the lie to it. Not few and full of trouble have my days been; but many, and as pleasant here and there a few; so in health and peace and competence I'm coming to a close, and yielding up my being to the Master, with everything about me as good as it can be." A few months later, he observed contentedly, "I think I have enjoyed the trees and grass and the scenery more than ever before. Old age leaves time to *see* things, and it certainly earns easily the pleasure of resting after fatigue." The letter continues with some sympathetic observations as to a friend then ill—"not as I am, idling in clover, and letting books go to the deuce."

## VIII

He was not idling. His interest in marine insurance, as in most other things, was as fresh as ever, and at this time he was preparing notes and gathering together materials for another pamphlet touching it, as the fruit of his more recent investigations. Letters and conversation occupied him much, and to the end there was no diminution in their range and force.

Some graceful little verses were written in the later years. He had no secure feeling for rhythm, and many are marred by the want of it, but a little lyric, produced during a short illness, is fairly characteristic:

There's my blithe swallow again!  
A bright black and white—  
With an arrow-like flight—  
One moment in sight—  
And then gone!

How I look'd, in the days now gone by;  
 How I long'd—and with many a sigh—  
 That again he would come darting by—  
     In the days of the brightening sun!

But he comes to renewing of life,  
 Love and joy, and the sweetness of strife;  
 To the care of his young and his wife—  
     He sees not the sick man below.

Before him a long summer lies—  
 With the growing of tenderest ties;  
 While dimmer are growing the eyes  
     That now watch him wistfully, so.

In January, 1898, he was one day keenly attracted by a rumour of war which appeared in the newspapers, and, regardless of fatigue, spent a long time in writing a letter to the *Times*, urging the importance of discontinuing the capture of private property at sea. The effort was too severe, and he died, after a few hours' illness, from heart failure; regretting, as long as he was conscious, that he should not live to finish the Tables—which, as he left them, constitute this volume.

He is buried in the parish churchyard of Stratford-on-Avon, the town where he first saw the light.

His favourite author comes readily to mind: "Why then protest? No tyrant gives you your dismissal, no unjust judge, but nature, who gave you the admission. It is like the prætor discharging some player whom he has engaged: 'But the five acts are not complete; I have played but three.' Good: life's drama, look you, is complete in three. The completeness is in his hands who first authorised your composition and now your dissolution; neither was your work. Serenely take your leave; serene as he who gives you the discharge." \*

\* "Marcus Aurelius Antoninus to Himself." Trans. by Gerald H. Rendall, M.A.

## PAMPHLETS PUBLISHED BY THE STATISTICAL SOCIETY

1. On the Accounts of the Bank of England under the Operation of the Act, 7 and 8 Vict.
2. Investigations of the Changes in the Condition of the People of the United Kingdom during the Eight Years 1839–47, and their Connection with Changes in the Price of Food.
3. Particulars of the Commercial Progress of the Colonial Dependencies of the United Kingdom during 1827–46.
4. On the Progress of Emigration from the United Kingdom during the past Thirty Years, with Reference to the Growth of the Population during the Same Period.
5. On the Fluctuations of the Annual Supply, and Average Price of Corn in France during the last Seventy Years, and particularly in 1792, 1814, 1830, and 1848.
6. Progress of the Foreign Commerce of France during the Reign of Louis Philippe, 1830–1848.
7. On the Quality of Gold and Silver supposed to have passed from America to Europe from its Discovery.
8. Our Commerce with Russia, in Peace and War.
9. On the Current Price and the Cost Price of Corn in England during the last Ten Years (1843–53) as Illustrating the Value of Agricultural Statistics.
10. On the Existing Connection between American Slavery and the British Cotton Manufacture.
11. On the Ages of the Population in Liverpool and Manchester. 1857.
12. Propositions and Inferences, with Statistical Notes, touching the Provision of Country Dwellings for Town Labourers, and in particular for those of Liverpool.
13. Statistical Observations on the Growth of the Human Body (Males) in Height and Weight, from Eighteen to Thirty Years of Age, from Records of the Borough Gaol of Liverpool. 1862.
14. Another Pamphlet—same Title. 1881.

## OTHER PAMPHLETS AND PUBLICATIONS

1. The Inventor's Manual; a Practical Treatise of the Law of Patents, for Inventors. J. T. Danson and F. Drysdale Dempsey.
2. Society for Promoting the Amendment of the Law. Report of the Committee on the Law of Property as to a General Map of the Lands in England and Wales. Session 1847.
3. Observations on the Speech of Sir William Molesworth, M.P., in the House of Commons on Tuesday, the 25th of July, 1848, on Colonial Expenditure and Government.
4. Historic Society of Lancashire and Cheshire. Letter to the Members. 1855.
5. Five Letters on Farming Agreements. 1855.
6. Wirral Agricultural Improvement Society. Report of the Committee on the Weights and Measures in Use for the Sale of Agricultural Produce. 1855.
7. On the Area and Population of the Manchester District. 1856.
8. Opening Address—Historic Society of Lancashire and Cheshire. 1856.
9. Report of the Committee appointed at a Public Meeting of Merchants, Brokers, and others interested in the Commerce of Liverpool to oppose the Bill promoted by the Exchange Buildings Company. 1858.
10. By-laws of the Exchange Company. 1859.
11. Liverpool Chamber of Commerce. Report of the Commercial Law Committee to the Council on the Law relating to Foreign Debtors. 1858.
12. Ten Minutes Advice to Directors of Joint Stock Companies. Reprinted from the *Globe* of September 6, 1858.
13. Historic Society of Lancashire and Cheshire. On the Population of Lancashire and Cheshire, and its Local Distribution during the Fifty Years 1801–51. By J. T. Danson and T. A. Welton.
14. National Association for the Promotion of Social Science. Address to the Liverpool Local Committee. 1859.

15. Liverpool Chamber of Commerce. Report of the Commercial Law Committee on the Introduction of the "Cental" of 100 lbs. Avoirdupois. 1859.
16. National Association for the Promotion of Social Science. On the Method, and the Range, of Statistical Inquiry, as applied to the Promotion of Social Science. 1859.
17. Historical Society of Lancashire and Cheshire. On the Uses of Learned Societies.
18. Reasons for Establishing a Marine Insurance Company in Liverpool. 1859.
19. Liverpool Chamber of Commerce. Report of the Commercial Law Committee on the Law affecting the Transfer and Delivery of Goods upon Sale. 1860.
20. On the Law of Collisions at Sea, where Foreign Vessels are concerned. 1860.
21. Chambers of Commerce and the Government. 1860.
22. American Civil War—Correspondence with Mr. H. C. Carey, of Philadelphia. 1861.
23. Liverpool Institute. Lectures on the Common Truths of Political Economy. 1862.
24. Deposits the True Basis of Banking. 1862.
25. Liverpool Institute. Presidential Address. 1862.
26. Liverpool Institute. Address. 1863.
27. Queen's College Union. The Uses of Discussion. 1863.
28. Liverpool Institute. Address. 1864.
29. National Association for the Promotion of Social Science. The Landowner in Relation to the State. 1864.
30. The New Marine Insurance Company. 1866.
31. On the Law relating to Foreign Debtors in England—particularly in Liverpool. 1869.
32. Jettison and General Average. 1869.
33. Liability of a Ship Master when a Pilot is on Board. Official Inquiry and Correspondence touching the Loss of the *Spindrift*.
34. Notes on the Pilotage of the Port of Liverpool. 1871.
35. Eastern Trade Bill of Lading. 1872.
36. Of the Relation of the Bill of Lading to the Policy. 1872.
37. About "Lloyd's." 1872.
38. The Underwriting of 1872.
39. The Underwriting of 1872, 1873, 1874.
40. Of the Proposed Legislation touching Maritime Contracts.
41. Bank *versus* Cashbox. 1875.
42. Maritime Insurance in England, 1875-76.
43. Underwriting in England in 1877.

44. Underwriting in England in 1878.
45. Underwriting in England in 1879.
46. Underwriting in England, France and America during the last Three Years. 1883.
47. The Proposed Legislation in Maritime Contracts. 1884.
48. Underwriting of 1883-84, in England and Abroad.
49. The Wealth of Households. 8vo. Clarendon Press. 1884.
50. Our Next War. 8vo. Blades, East & Blades. 1894.
51. Our Commerce in War. 8vo. 1897.

## INTRODUCTION

THE versatility which, as will be seen from the accompanying narrative, was a conspicuous feature of Mr. Danson's life, was not without a counterpart in his writings. His mental activity was shown in many ways. His interest in intellectual movements was great. The Social Science Congress and the British Association found in him a strong supporter. He urged the Historic Society of Lancashire and Cheshire to undertake regular and systematic investigation. The educational impulse which established the Queen's College, and which may be regarded as in large measure responsible for the foundation of the University College, and thus of the University of Liverpool, owed much to his advocacy and guidance. But it is not so much the support which he gave to others, as the actual work which he himself did, which calls for notice. The bibliography shows that that was both considerable in quantity and very varied in character. That despite his many occupations he should have written so much is in itself remarkable, and must be ascribed to a bent of mind which led him to regard the questions encountered in his professional and business career as objects of interest in themselves and thus as deserving investigation quite apart from their immediate practical importance. It was contrary to his nature to overlook their general importance. When assisting Lord Grey he wrote on the colonies, both as to condition and policy; as a lawyer, semi-legal matters were his theme; when farming in Cheshire he

became a writer on agriculture; and, lastly, his calling as an underwriter led to a constant stream of pamphlets on the various aspects of insurance. But his literary activity extended much further. Apart altogether from the matters suggested to his mind by his profession, he turned from one question to another with an enthusiasm that never tired. He wrote on the early production of the precious metals; on the condition of the people in 1839-47; on the relation between the cultivation of cotton and slavery; on the need of country dwellings for town labourers; on statistics of prices and physical growth; and on many other and very different matters. Throughout all his work, varied though it seems, there is a certain unity which displays itself both in choice of subject and in method of treatment. His dominant interest was the social and economic condition of the people, and the forces operating on that condition. Within that sphere, which is, it must be confessed, a large one, it is possible to distinguish his writings into three classes. There are addresses and some few pamphlets of a general character, dealing, for instance, with education and progress; there are his many productions relating to insurance, sometimes in its technical, but almost equally often in its relation to individual and national life; and, lastly, there are the essays and works more purely economic in character. These latter probably represent his real intellectual interest. Even in his general addresses, the topics dealt with are treated most fully when he turns to economic and social aspects; while there is a natural connection between what he wrote on insurance and his views on economic life.

His method may be described as inductive, with a marked preference for actual statistical treatment. It is most characteristically displayed in the papers which he contributed on special points, where facts occupy page after page—at times, indeed, as in the paper on the colonies, being given in such detail as to almost obscure the conclusions to be drawn from

them. In the one systematic production of his life, "The Wealth of Households," this inductive feature is less obvious; but the reason is simple. In that case he was writing of many matters which came within his own commercial experience, and that experience he implicitly assumes as a basis for generalisation. Among the more purely statistical work, the essays on the "Distribution of Population in Lancashire and Cheshire," and the "Growth of the Human Body," together with the contributions towards the "History of Prices," of which some parts are printed in this volume, deserve mention on account of their ingenuity.

Apart from the pamphlets on insurance, which call for separate treatment, the purely economic work may be treated under three headings: "The Wealth of Households;" studies of special subjects; and statistics of price.

The one work in which the author took the opportunity of putting together his economic views in anything like a consecutive form was due, as he tells us, to his desire to utilise his experience for the instruction of his own children. When, somewhat later, difficulties arose in connection with the lectures on Political Economy at Queen's College, through the unexpected resignation of a lecturer, Mr. Danson offered to prepare a course. This course, consisting of thirteen lectures, was delivered in 1875-76, and afterwards printed. Ten years later the book was recast and published in its present shape, to serve as a text-book under the title of the "Wealth of Households." In its new form it comprises nineteen chapters, subjects such as Foreign Commerce, Property in Land, Socialism, and Capital, now being added to those previously dealt with, or receiving separate and further treatment. Essentially, however, the plan of the book remains unchanged, a fact which should be remembered in any criticism. It is not, in the full sense of the term, an economic text-book. Yet it is systematic in purpose and method. Perhaps it may best be described as a sketch of

economic society, especially with regard to the distribution of the National Income. The first two chapters deal with the form of society in which wants are supplied by means of exchange, and not directly. Exchange, indeed, is treated as an essential characteristic of man. "We observe that most of the lower animals acquire property, and that to a limited extent some of them accumulate it; but they know nothing of comparative value, and they have not the idea of exchange. . . . that is only seen by men, and by them only when they come to deal with each other." In dealing with the growth of such a society it is well pointed out that the real quality to which value is attached is service. "Value, then, is really inherent only in service."

Corresponding to services are the varying sources of individual income. These permanent and legitimate forms of income, that is, of income which corresponds to services, are then enumerated. Their treatment occupies five chapters. In respect of wages there is little that calls for particular notice, so far as general economic theory is concerned, though much that is said is suggestive, mainly because it deals with the subject from a less formal and comprehensive standpoint than would be required in a text-book. Thus, speaking of differences in the rate of wage, we read, "The low remuneration of needlewomen (at one time a distressing incident of our industrial life in England) and the permanently low price of mere clerk's work in our offices, may be traced to the efforts made, in great part with public funds, to teach needlework to all our girls, and writing and reading to all our boys."

Another passage puts very happily the difference between labour and other productive agents. "All floating capital may be said to be in itself equally effective; its productive power depends wholly upon the skill with which it is used. Not so with labour. . . . The capitalist may gain by screwing down rent or interest, but if he knows what he is about he

will never screw down wages, however exacting he may be as to the return he gets for them."

The chapter on Rent, beyond its expository value and the conclusion that in "locality" or "fixity in space," the one "natural and indestructible" property of land, is to be found the main feature of ground-rent, acquires importance on account of the attempt made to fix the distinction between rent and interest by defining the one as payment for the use of a thing to be itself returned, the other as payment for the use of a thing to be returned in value. The discussion in the chapters on these two forms of income has many points of interest.

Again, the treatment of Profits bears the trace of an acute mind working on the data furnished by experience, and working very independently. Throughout, profit is regarded as "necessarily associated with risk"; it is "the fit reward of that intelligence which contrives and foresees the course and computes the risk of industrial enterprise. It is always attended by risk of loss. So it implies the possession of something to be lost. This something is capital." But far more valuable than this formal definition are the individual criticisms expressed on various minor matters, as when he points out that adulteration is "a perfectly natural result of the never-ending effort of manufacturers and dealers to please consumers who can estimate price but cannot estimate quality"; or, again, in the very interesting attempts to determine the element of profit which enters into the form of co-operation termed profit-sharing, or to discriminate between speculation and gambling. From the sources of income the reader is led to a description of the organisation and factors whereby exchange is given effect to in a modern community, in which connection come the chapters on Commerce, Capital, Credit, Money, Banking, and Competition. In these, which cannot be dealt with in detail, he seeks by description and analysis to put before his readers a reasoned view of the

intricate forces which rule in the economic sphere. That he is but partially successful is due in large measure to the number of side-issues which distract him from his main theme, but partly at any rate to the wealth of the facts and illustrations crowding his pages. Still the lack of continuity is largely compensated for by the fresh and vigorous treatment of particular questions.

The remaining chapters have specific reference to particular questions rising into importance at the time when the book was re-written and given its final shape; with the exception of the chapter on Foreign Commerce, they rank as special applications of the principles previously laid down. That chapter, however, is an expansion of earlier statements on this particular branch of commerce, and was due in this form to the attacks made at that time on the commercial policy of the country.

As has already been said, the "Wealth of Households" is not a text-book. It is a connected series of essays on the leading branches of Political Economy. Among such he very rightly includes Insurance.

The writings on special subjects are numerous. In addition to the two included in this volume both as being of special interest and as illustrative of the nature of such work in general, they include the following important contributions: "On the Amount of Gold brought from America to Europe"; "On the Existing Connection between American Slavery and the British Cotton Manufacture"; "On the Population of Lancashire and Cheshire and its Local Distribution during the Fifty Years, 1801-1851"; "Statistical Observations on the Growth of the Human Body"; the pamphlet entitled "Observations on the Speech of Sir William Molesworth, &c.," and dealing with colonial policy, should be read alongside the paper on the colonies here reproduced; while "Our Next War" forms one of the writings on Insurance.

Of the foregoing, the first-named—that relating to the

importation of gold from America since the first discoveries of the mines in the South—is a very careful examination of the data used by Humboldt in his celebrated estimate. It is valuable from two points of view—firstly, as substantiating in the main the methods and evidence adopted by Humboldt; and, secondly, as introducing corrections into the actual estimate formed. The paper on the connection between slavery and the cotton supply, read before the British Association in 1856, deals with the extent to which British industry was affected, or might appear to have been affected, by the continuance of slavery in the United States. It was a wholly dispassionate statement of well-arranged facts, and must not, as the author warns us, be taken as an argument either against or for slavery. The formal propositions established do much to explain the general feeling as to an identity of interests between Lancashire and the Southern States. As facts stood, it was true that little cotton was grown without slave labour, and that despite the preference given at different times to Indian cotton, the reliance of England upon slave-grown cotton had been regularly maintained. Though any essential connection between the cotton supply and slavery has had much doubt thrown upon it by subsequent events, the plain statement of existing facts in this essay puts the position as it must have appeared to many merchants and manufacturers, whatever their views upon the moral issue, and as it existed at the time. In the two papers presented to the Historic Society of Lancashire, the distribution of the population in these two counties is traced during the most important half-century in their growth, with particular reference to the development of town and industrial districts.

Little comment is required on the two essays reprinted in this volume. They explain themselves. The one relating to the colonies is a careful statement of the economic condition of the colonies at the middle of the century, accompanied by facts which are directed to prove the danger of artificial

markets and sources as distinct from those which find their origin in natural wealth and advantages. With this the pamphlet in which Lord Grey is defended against the impatience of Sir William Molesworth stands in some sort of connection. It criticises Colonial Policy on its political, as the foregoing on its economic, side. The other essay, which deals with the condition of the country during the vexed period 1839-47, is, perhaps, of more general interest, especially at the present time, when the exigencies of politics have enriched economic literature with so many and such varied versions of the times when the Corn Laws were repealed. The account in question affords a means of verifying some of the assertions which are made. In it Mr. Danson sought to establish two positions—the one that a period of considerable distress from 1839 to 1842 was followed by one of improvement from 1843 to 1846, when, owing to certain events, severe depression again threatened; the other that the period of distress and the period of improvement were coincident with high and low food prices respectively. In many respects this is the best of his writings in this group.

One subject, that of Insurance, furnished the contents of many of the pamphlets and articles which proceeded from his ready pen. In part, at any rate, these were professional and technical in character. It was owing to his advocacy by speech and writing that joint-stock insurance companies were started in Liverpool, following in this respect London; and while secretary first and then underwriter to the Thames and Mersey Marine Insurance Company, he was incessant in his endeavours to develop insurance schemes in the widest sense and to secure amendment of the existing law. Both in practical management and in technical advocacy he was a notable figure. In addition he realised as few have done the importance of insurance as a factor in both the economic and the political life of a country: hence, in particular, the chapter on Insurance in the "Wealth of Households," and the

interesting book, "Our Next War." These emphasise the value of insurance in its most general aspect. It is rightly said that despite the very obvious risks incurred in early commerce "insurance is a modern art," it might be said with equal truth that it has received little attention at the hands of economists, and yet its importance, as we find it sketched in the pages devoted to it by Mr. Danson, is not only great, but obvious. Its aim is simple. In industrial operations there is "an irremovable margin of uncertainty. To provide for this margin is the peculiar, and it is the only, purpose of insurance. In as far as it is effective, it tends directly to limit the liability of individuals to that which is determined by their own conduct. The rest it distributes as a common burden over the community at large." With its results he deals in a very suggestive manner. In the first place, it expresses and so indirectly and despite certain opportunities of fraud emphasises the economic value of honesty. It might be argued possibly that it thus directly encourages honesty, but this point is not pressed in the writings under consideration. In the second place, it relieves industry from the crushing apprehension of fatality due to accident. Thirdly, it tends towards the actual diminution of risk by making such an obvious gain to large bodies of people. "But even let it be assumed that the system of insurance is powerless to affect the causes of the loss insured against, and that all it can do is to distribute more equally a burden in its nature common to all men, but apt under influences we cannot control to fall upon individuals with unequal and often with crushing weight—even here there is a gain beyond the mere distribution of the burden." "Our Next War" touches a question which has risen into greater prominence since the time when these considerations were published (1893-4). It seeks to determine the extent to which maritime risks incurred in war can be safeguarded by insurance. The calculation is based on an estimate of the risk likely to threaten British shipping interests in any future war,

which must, as is argued, be mainly naval so far as this country is concerned. After a review of the risks incurred in the Napoleonic wars as far as these are ascertainable, present risks are estimated in view of past knowledge. The general conclusion is that such war risk would amount to about five per cent. on everything afloat. In view of this he canvasses the effect which would be produced by the state assumption of the risk. One effect such a state guarantee would undoubtedly have. It would go far to check panic, and hence would prevent a wholesale disorganisation of the shipping trade. These and other advantages are rightly emphasised. But even allowing for them something more is required, since, as is said, though panic might be checked, actual loss of carrying trade could not be avoided; and hence the conclusion is reached that independently of or in addition to any scheme of State Insurance the nation must take measures which will prevent loss. In other words, swift cruisers must be built, by means of which, in the event of war, certain definite routes might be furnished with convoy.

The statistical work relating to prices still remains to be described. The relation traced between the price of food and the condition of the population mentioned in one of the early essays indicates the importance which Mr. Danson attached to movements in price. As a matter of fact, this subject was to absorb a large share of his attention in his later years. His work in connection with the preparation of the statistics for the last volume of Tooke's "*History of Prices*" is another instance of his interest in the same subject, as also indeed is the paper "*On the Current Price and the Cash Price of Corn in England during the last Ten Years, as illustrating the Value of Agricultural Statistics,*" read before the Liverpool meeting of the British Association in 1854. After his retirement from active business he devoted much of his time to the preparation and graphic illustration of the alterations in price of a large number of commodities. These he traced separately

as shown in the reproduction in the present volume, and also on a large chart measuring 17 by  $4\frac{1}{2}$  feet. It is greatly to be regretted that the excessive number of the commodities and the constant intersection of the lines indicating their movements render impossible the reduction of the chart to a size at all feasible for publication. Its great value lies in the corroboration afforded of the combined movement which is shown in the various systems of index numbers. What is there expressed in combination is in the chart displayed in the common trend of the separate lines, despite deviations of separate articles on one or the other side. The advantage of this system is that the special causes controlling the action of particular prices can be separated from those general causes which govern the common direction. The chart itself is a monument of careful and ungrudging labour. The design which he cherished of producing a volume in continuation of Tooke's "History" remained unfulfilled at the time of his death. Scattered notes and a very incomplete manuscript are all that remain by way of comment on the changes recorded in the chart and the graphic tables.

A general estimate of the position of Mr. Danson as a thinker and writer, as distinct from his active work in business and public life, is attended with many difficulties. His literary reputation has suffered from particular causes which, though to some degree associated with actual mental qualities, have done much to prevent an adequate recognition of his merits. The absence of early systematic training in the economic sphere, indeed, despite its effect as shown in a deficient sense of the proportionate importance of many points dealt with, may be partly or even largely compensated for by the absence of any rigid or doctrinaire attitude, and by greater freshness of treatment. But the same cannot be said, so far at least as reputation is concerned, for the restlessness which occasioned such constant change from subject to subject. This was, it is true, due to a wide variety and keenness of

interests, but in his case, as in many others, greater concentration and less dissipation of energy would have led to the production of work of a more enduring character. In intellectual work distinction is in the main won by two classes: on the one hand, there are the few who, by reason of some great discovery or development of principle, give a wholly new or even revolutionary direction to the main subject of their study. With them may be ranked others, also few in number, in whose case wide learning combined with system and nicely balanced sense of proportion, attain a like result by the restatement of results hitherto scattered and without connection. On the other hand, the specialist, sometimes though not necessarily of far less natural ability, makes good his position by the complete mastery of a particular branch of the science in question. His work endures as a part in the indispensable foundation of the future structure of thought. It would hardly be correct to include Mr. Danson in either of these classes. His productions have not the rare quality which marks work of the first order, while, as has already been said, his very width of interest led to a dissipation of force, and was opposed to the concentration noticeable in those who devote their time to the special study of a limited part of a wide field. In consequence his work has not received due recognition.

As to the characteristics of the works described, something must be added to what was previously said. Two general conceptions appear in clear relief: a firm reliance on education and knowledge as the remedy for many existing difficulties; and the belief that the ultimate and enduring sources of material prosperity are skill, individuality, and natural advantages, as opposed to those sought by artificial means, which he deemed likely to be of very temporary effect. Hence his optimism and frank acceptance of competition; hence, too, his opposition to protection. As to the former, he wrote: "The Hindoo notion of blessedness is unbroken

rest, and their builders object to the arch that 'it never sleeps.' But society, as we know it, is all arch. The existence of every part of it is constantly dependent upon the pressure given to and received from the parts adjacent. This pressure comes of competition, and results in the only form of co-operation which is yet practicable to mankind at large." His views on protective measures in their relation to the trade of England are expressed in many places, most completely perhaps in the chapter on Foreign Commerce in the "Wealth of Households."

The more especial merits of Mr. Danson's work, however, are independent of this attitude and of the arguments ranged in its support. He supplies some of the gaps in the fabric of continuous economic thought, particularly so in relation to profit and interest. Even more important is the introduction of insurance as a necessary part of economic study. Further his papers and pamphlets dealing with separate subjects are of great interest, and often high value. Existing theories were corrected and knowledge enriched. This is particularly true of the writings dealing with historical and statistical matters. The method of investigation is sound and the conclusions arrived at are stated with the utmost care.

Writing at the present date, it is interesting to note how strangely pertinent are many of the contributions to matters now under discussion. Indeed it is not too much to say that in many instances articles and pamphlets, published some forty and fifty years ago, concern the present age more closely than the past, and that those interested in the solution of modern problems could hardly do better than turn back to them. The importance of the price of food to the actual condition of the people, which has been the subject of political controversy, was treated with great lucidity and care in the paper on the condition of the people 1839-47. It would be well if other and later investigations on the same subject had been carried out with equal fulness and impartiality. Again

the problem of housing which was suggested by certain early proposals, is admirably discussed in some articles on the treatment of the question in relation to Liverpool. The need is urged of systematic provision of country dwellings for town labourers, and the methods as well as the advantages of such a scheme are fully discussed. In effect, the garden suburb with adequate provision for cheap and rapid transport is advocated. Here, as in some other matters, he was far in advance of his time, and in consequence the years intervening between his proposals and the present have been spent in making the realisation of any such projects infinitely more difficult and more costly. Again the recent, nay present, discussion as to the position of shipping in time of war, and the possible influence of the assumption of marine war risks by the State on panic insurances is the theme of the latest book.

Owing to a singular combination of qualities and circumstances, Mr. Danson produced a large amount of work, very varied indeed in type, but taken altogether of great value. He was a skilful statistician, a laborious investigator, and an acute thinker, able to generalise and yet always anxious to base his generalisations on a firm and wide base of fact. His variety of interests secured him from narrowness of view. Further his proved business capacity and his experience of different callings and of administrative work both kept him in touch with the considerations of practice, and furnished a store of facts derived from personal knowledge, as distinct from those garnered in the study and from books and figures. On the other hand, there is no doubt that the variety of his interests and the very alertness of his mind interfered with combined concentration in one direction or on one subject. But for this his writings undoubtedly would be of more solid and permanent value. At the same time, it should be remembered that in such case they might and probably would have been of less general interest, and less suggestive

in character. As it was, several of the monographs are of continuing importance; his writings on Insurance are both of technical and high economic worth; his statistics of price supply a gap in the history of price, while his one general treatise, "The Wealth of Households," though difficult to classify, is valuable as a wise and suggestive commentary on the leading subjects in the province of economics.

E. C. K. GONNER.

## DIAGRAMS AND CHARTS

THE plates and diagrams here given are practically the *raison d'être* of this volume. The small one-page plates are reproduced exactly as Mr. Danson left them; their aim being to show (as percentages) the fluctuations in the price of each commodity separately, on the average price for the five years 1846 to 1850 inclusive. The line lengthens towards the reader's right hand, starting from the medium line which represents this average as the price rises from that point, and towards the left as it falls below it. The record is made twice in each year. There are twenty-two plates, each indicating the behaviour of a separate article. The twenty-third shows the *actual* Bank rate each half year in London, Paris, and Berlin. Contemporaneously with these Mr. Danson had prepared a large chart, combining in long interweaving lines the twenty-two articles of commerce which on the plates are dealt with separately, so as to show (as a percentage on the same average price) their comparative movements for what was intended to be a period of fifty years. He did not live to complete it. In this chart—unfortunately too large for actual reproduction—the long, often intersecting, lines run from the left hand towards the right, showing their deviations by an upward or downward tendency. This has therefore been transcribed, in what is believed to be the most practicable and representative form, in eight sheets, each of which represents five years. The rise and fall of the number of articles, again in percentages, is shown in comparison by an

upward or downward stroke, starting from a medium line shown in red, which represents the average price of the same five years. In some few instances space has not admitted of the full line being shown, in which case it is indicated by a broken edge, and the full extent is given in figures. These sheets only show the position at the beginning of each year. The *actual* Bank rate in London, Paris, and Berlin at the beginning of each year is also recorded. The red lines in this column show the average bank rate during the period in relation to which the percentage calculations are made.

The chart has also been shown in another form in the following table, where the fluctuations in the prices of the 22 commodities, from 1851 to 1890, are expressed in figures, 100 representing the average price of each for the five years—1846 to 1850.

# LIST OF DIAGRAMS

NUMBER OF DIAGRAM.	COMMODITY.	AVERAGE PRICE 1846-1850 IN SHILLINGS.
I.	Meat ... ..	3·27 per 8 lbs.
II.	Wheat ... ..	53·00 „ quarter
III.	Sugar ... ..	·319 „ lb.
IV.	Tea ... ..	·77 „ „
V.	Coffee ... ..	·437 „ „
VI.	Tobacco ... ..	·374 „ „
VII.	Cotton ... ..	·433 „ „
VIII.	„ Yarn ... ..	·812 „ „
IX.	„ Cloth ... ..	6·739 „ piece
X.	Wool ... ..	1·25 „ lb.
XI.	Silk ... ..	11·50 „ „
XII.	Flax ... ..	44·00 „ cwt.
XIII.	Hemp ... ..	32·00 „ „
XIV.	Leather ... ..	1·50 „ lb.
XV.	Iron ... ..	160·00 „ ton
XVI.	Lead ... ..	17·50 „ cwt.
XVII.	Copper ... ..	88·00 „ „
XVIII.	Tin ... ..	·76 „ lb.
XIX.	Timber ... ..	72·00 „ load
XX.	Tallow ... ..	44·00 „ cwt.
XXI.	Oils ... ..	716·00 „ tun
XXII.	Indigo ... ..	3·75 „ lb.

I.

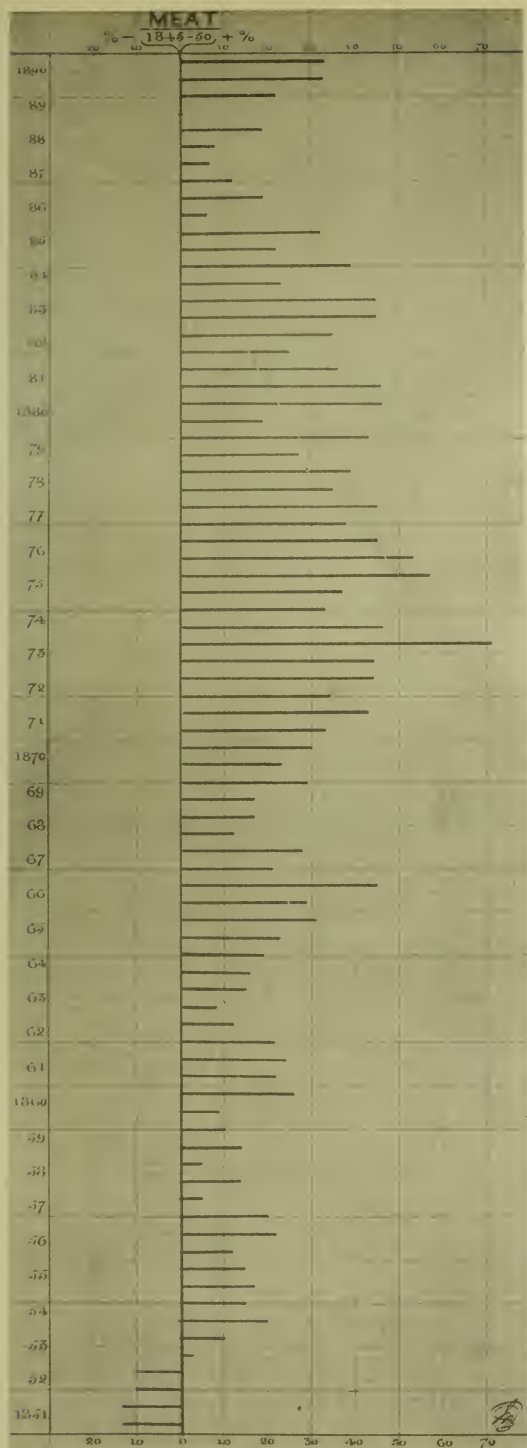


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Meat, from 1851 to 1890.

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UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

II.

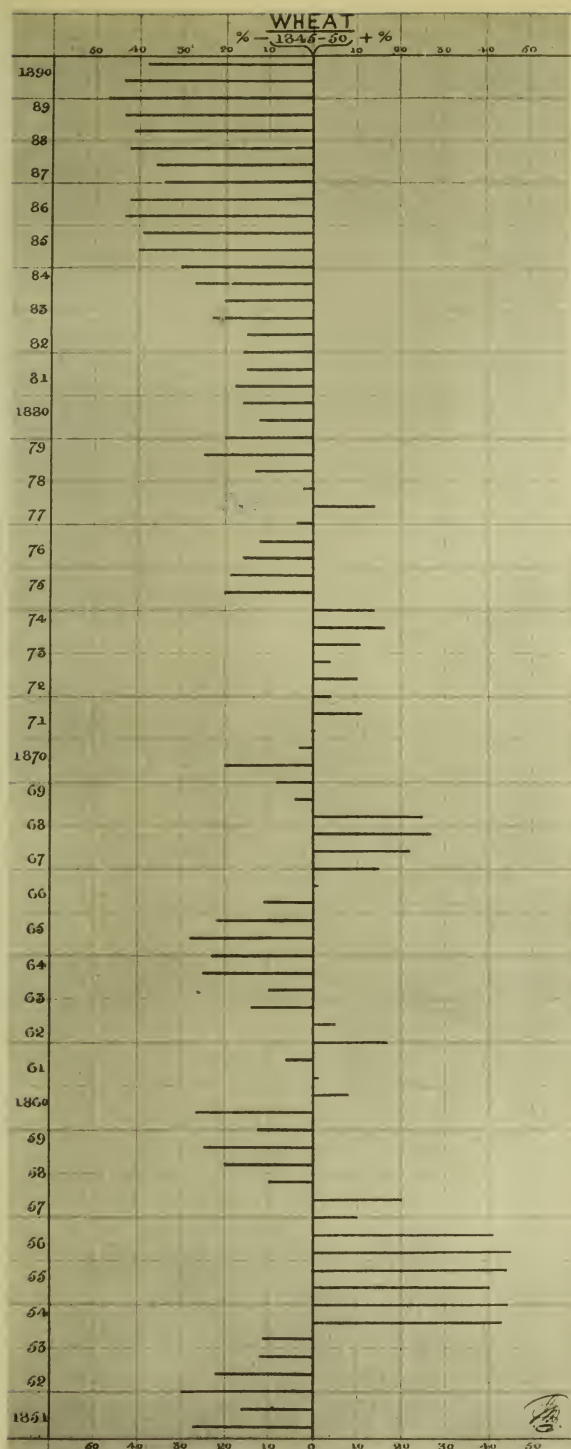


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Wheat, from 1851 to 1890.

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III.

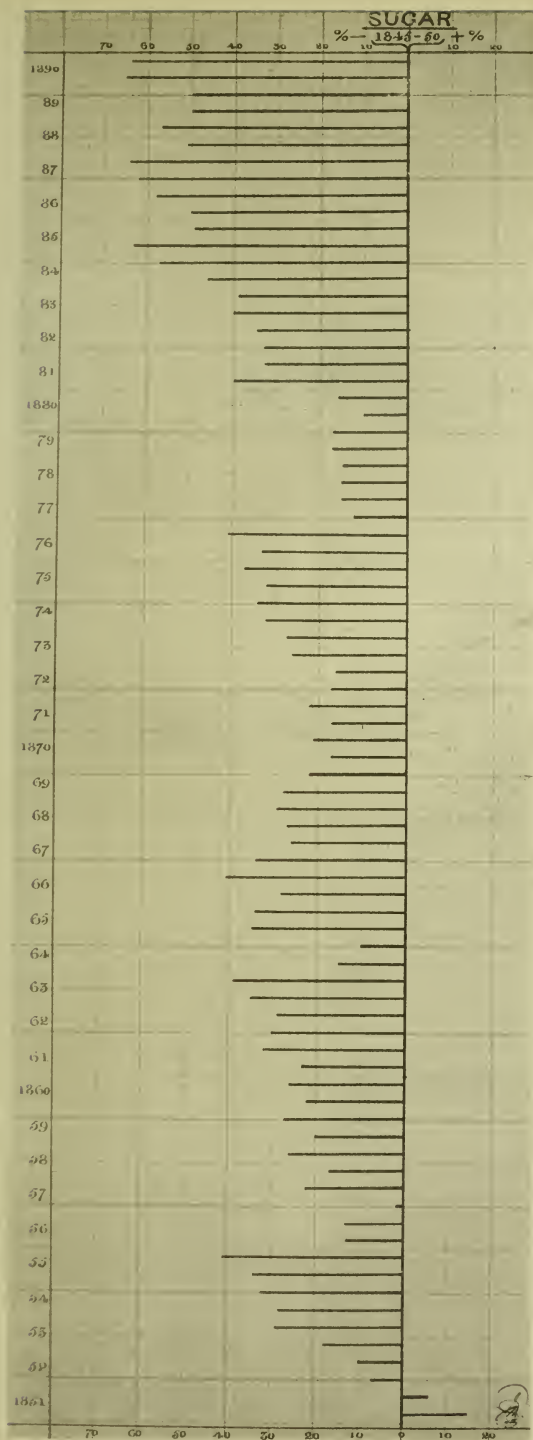


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50 the fluctuations in the price of Sugar. from 1851 to 1890.

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IV.

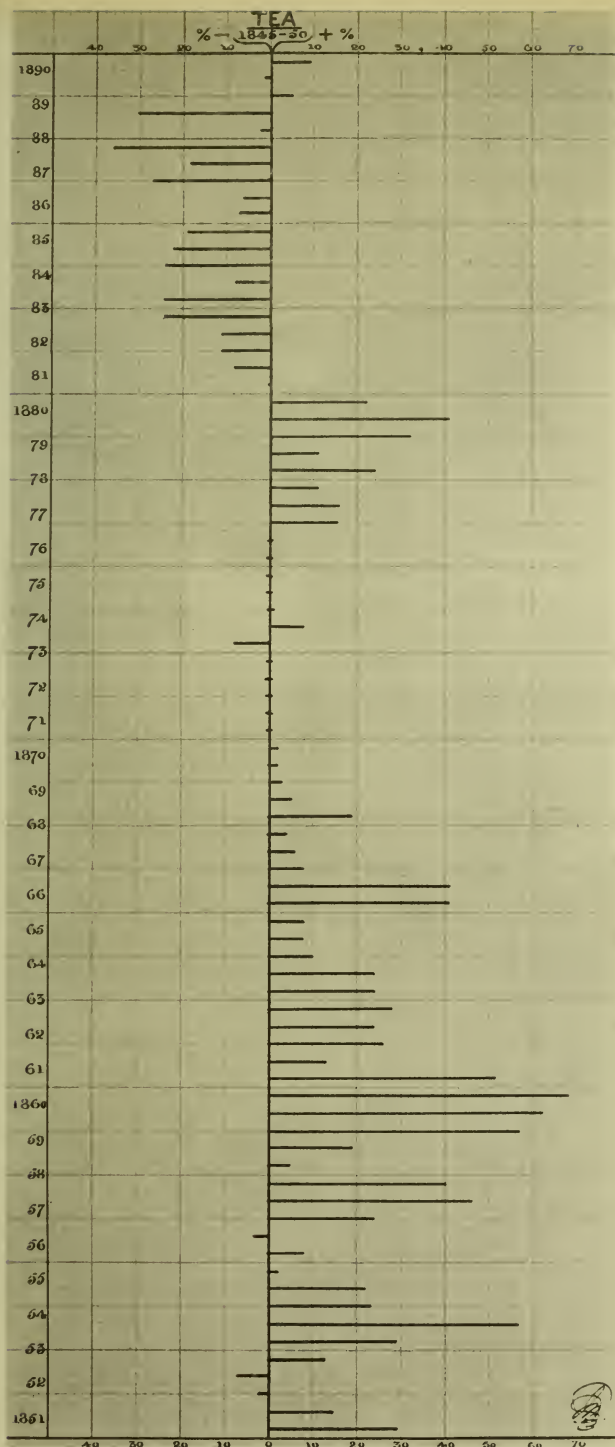


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Tea, from 1851 to 1890.

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V.

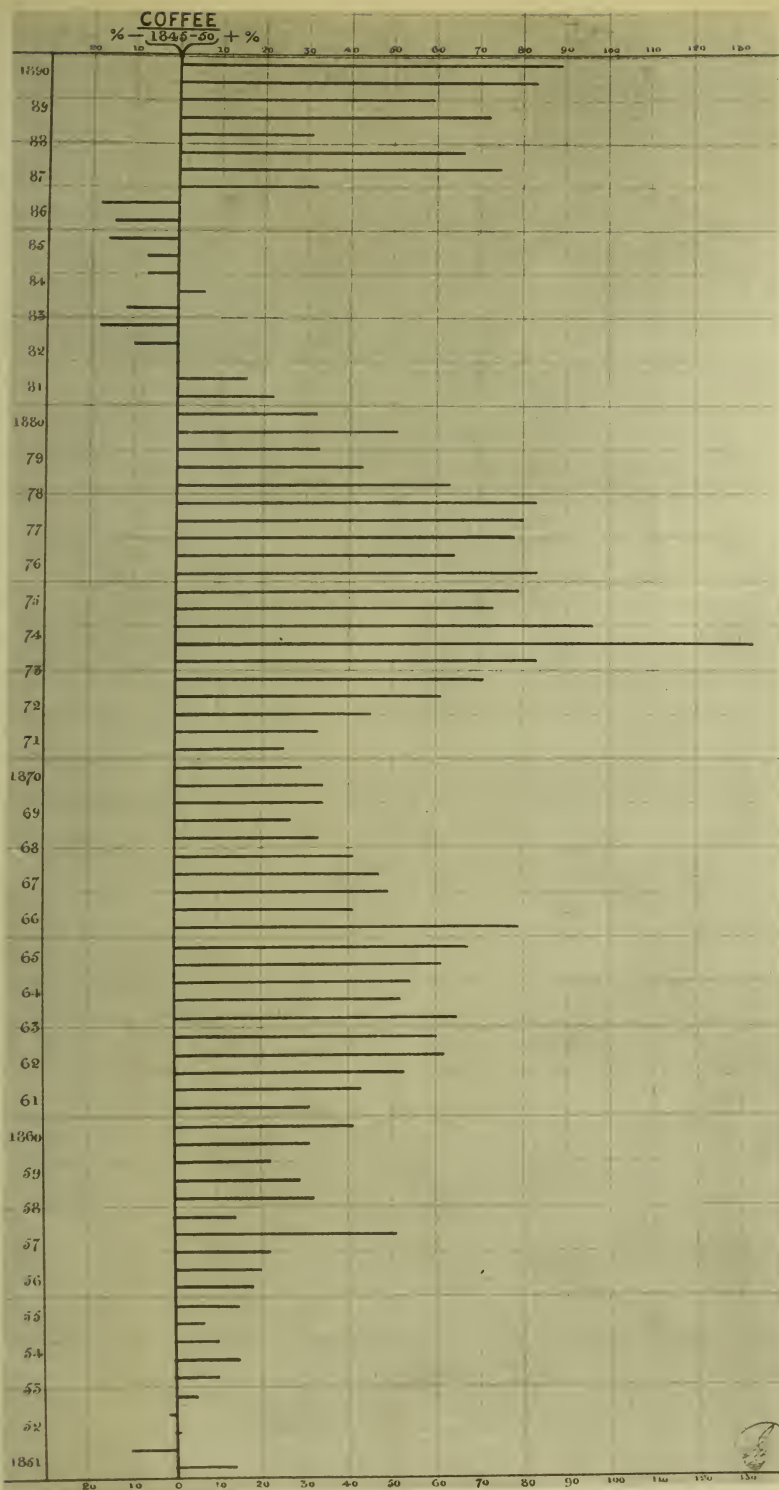


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Coffee, from 1851 to 1890.

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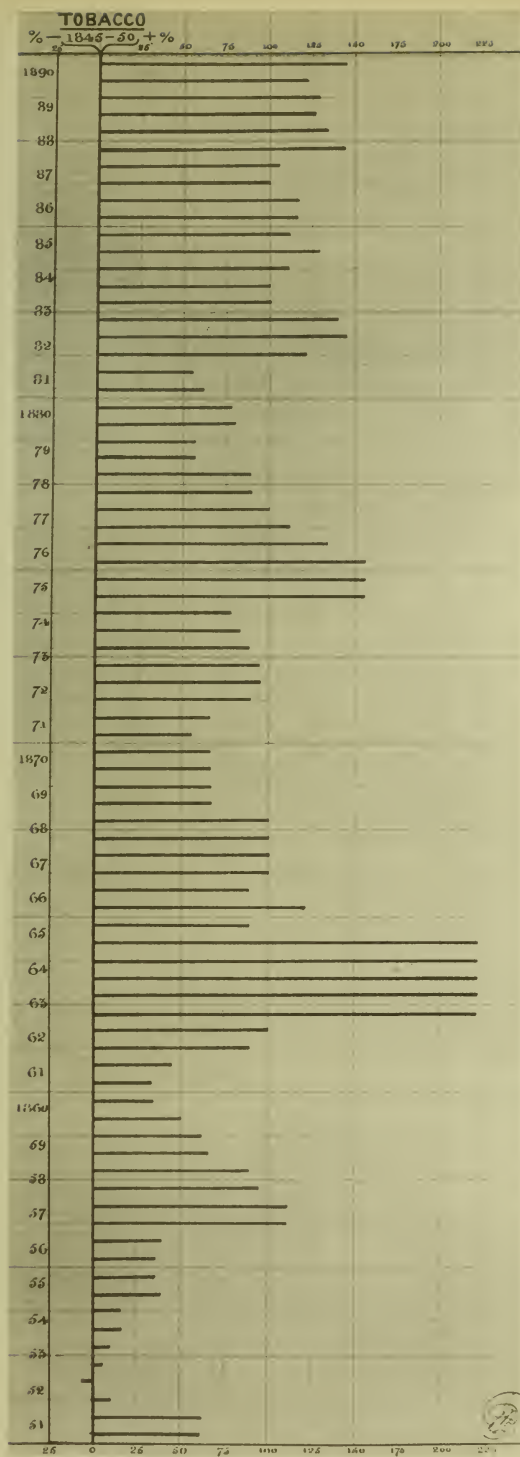


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Tobacco, from 1851 to 1890.

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CITY OF BOSTON

VII.



*Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Cotton, from 1851 to 1890.*

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VIII.

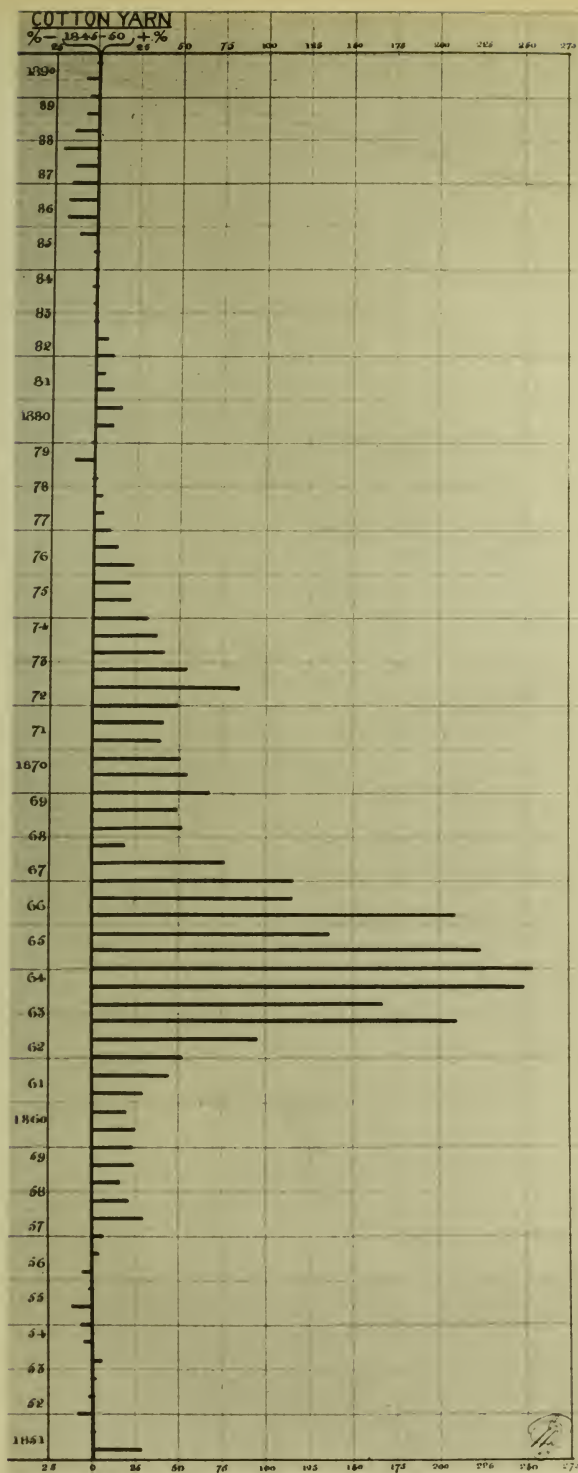


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Cotton Yarn, from 1851 to 1890.

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IX.

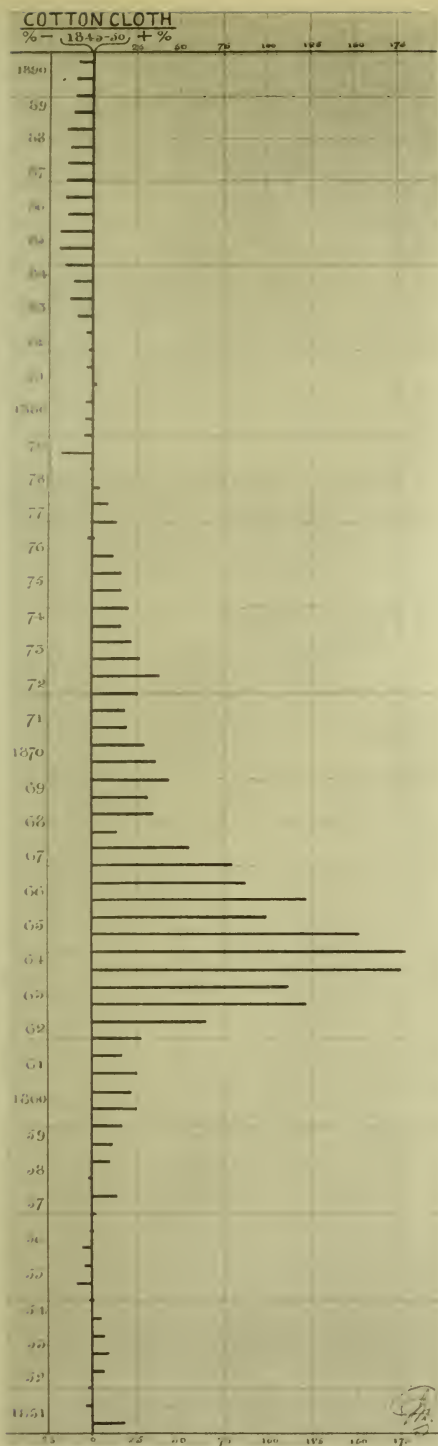


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Cotton piece Cloth, from 1851 to 1890.

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X.

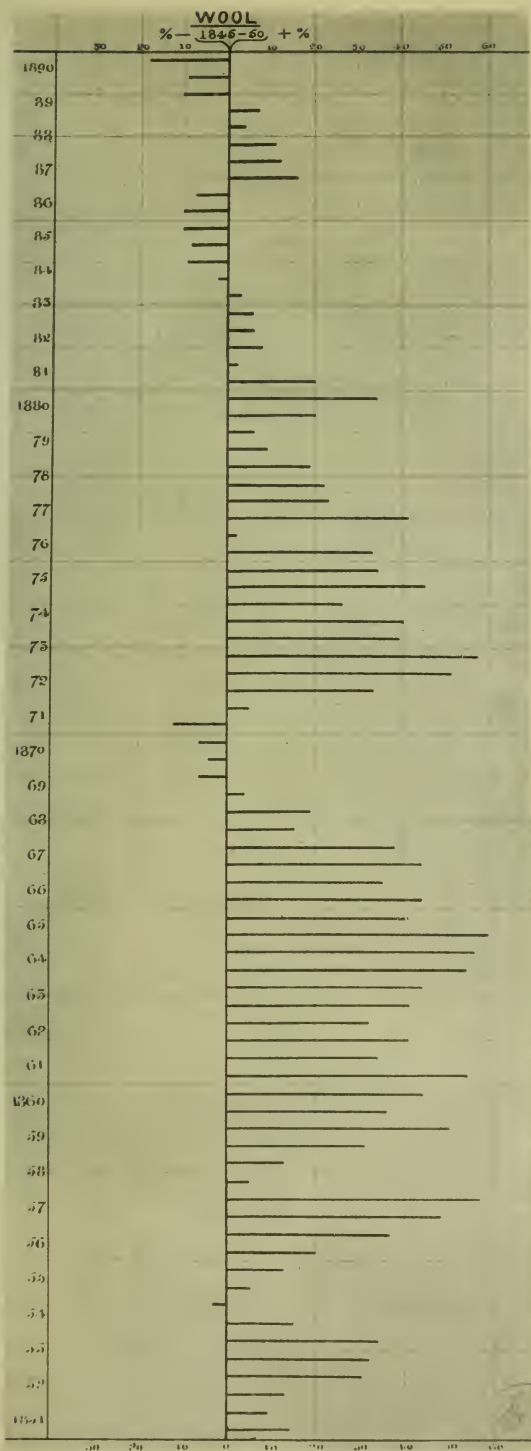


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-70  
the fluctuations in the price of Wool, from 1851 to 1890.

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XI.

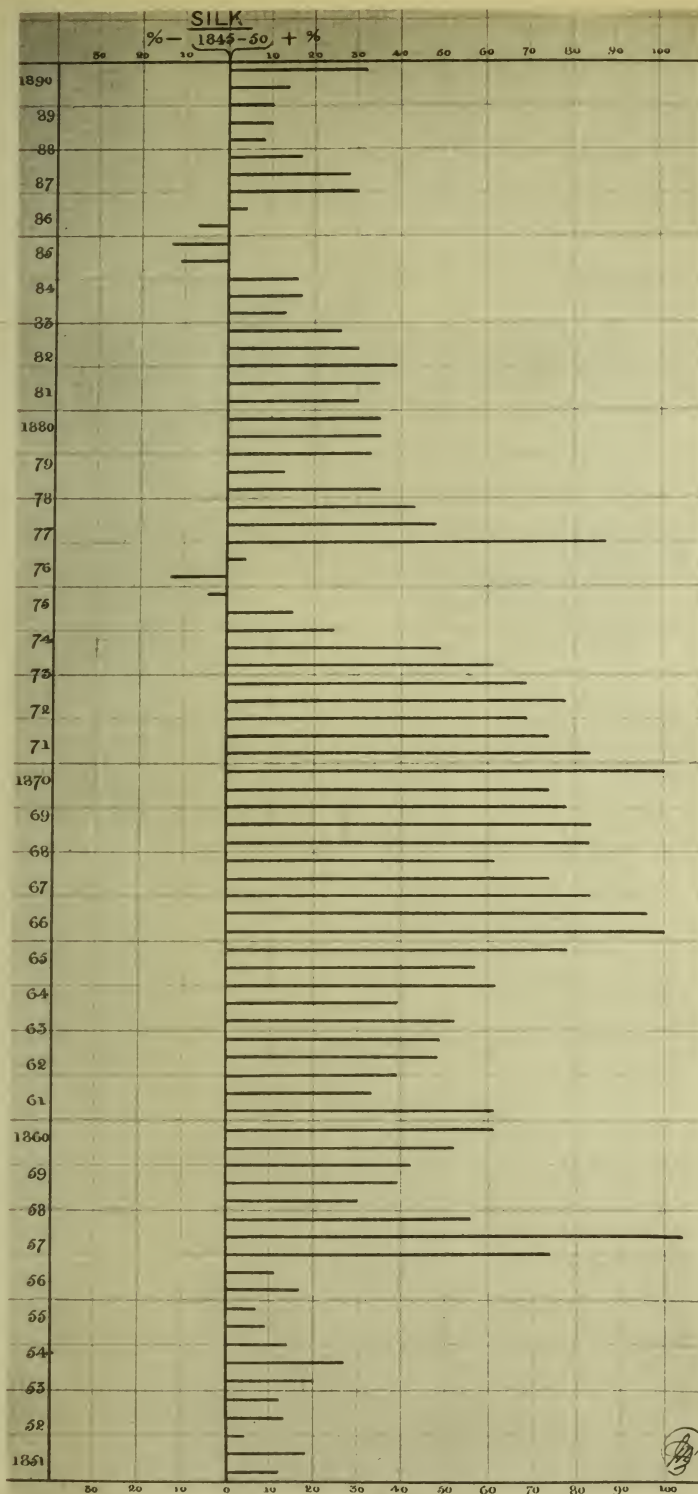


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Silk, from 1851 to 1890.

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XII.

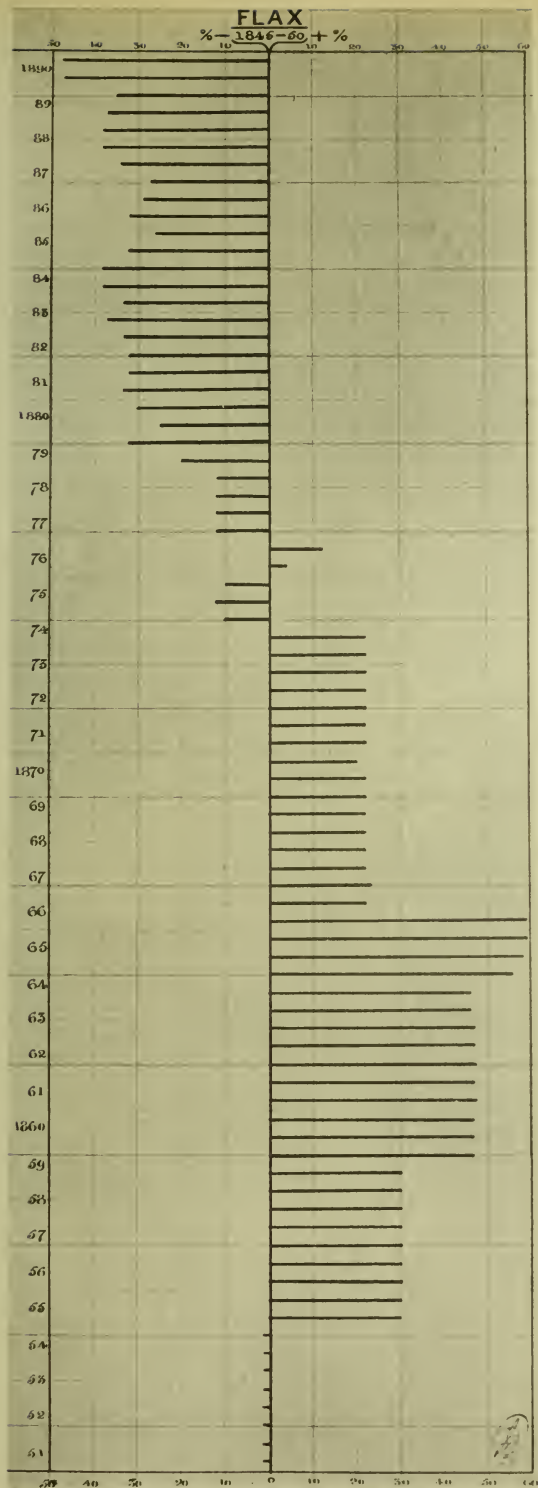


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Flax, from 1851 to 1890.

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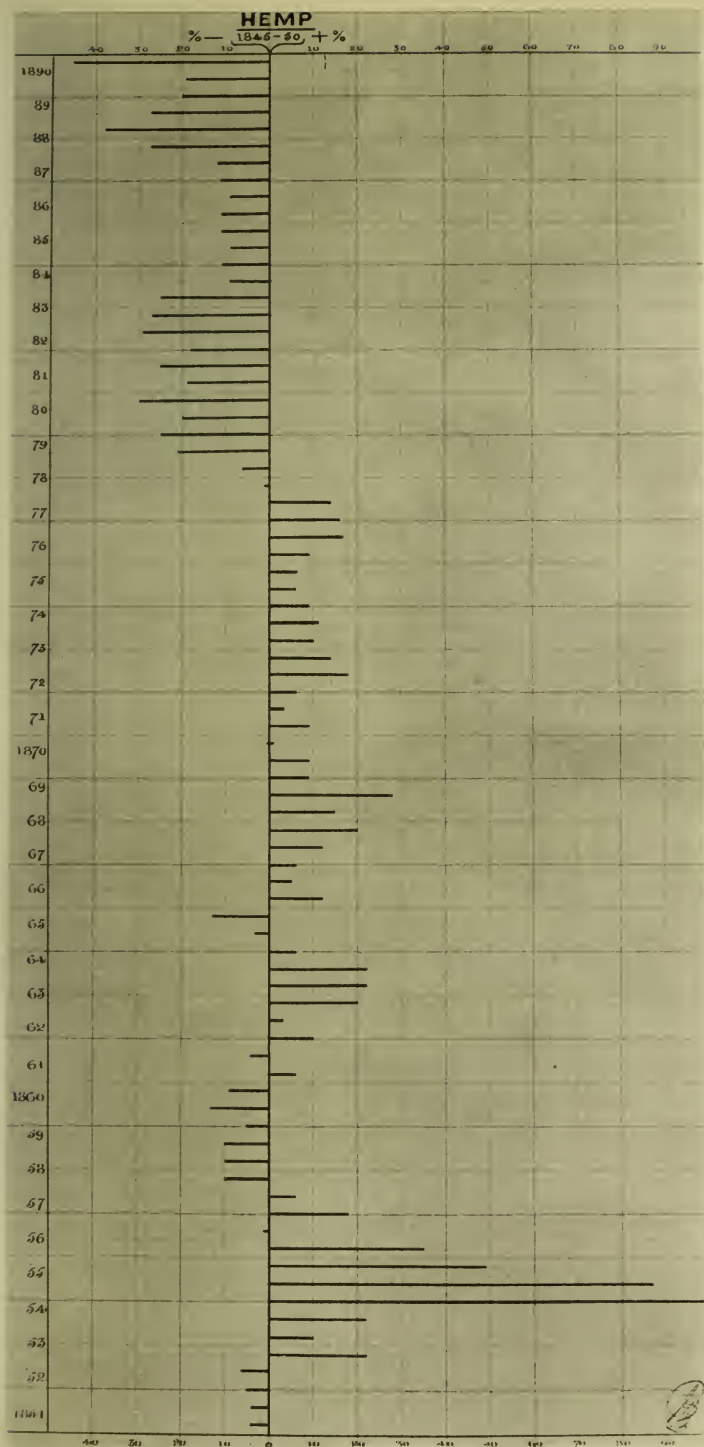


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Hemp, from 1851 to 1890.

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XIV.

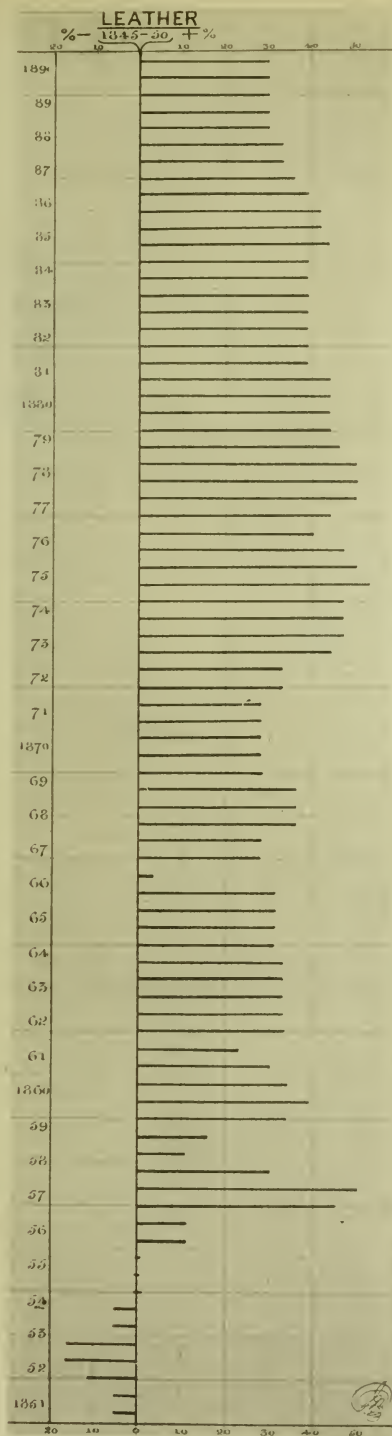


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Leather, from 1851 to 1890

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XV.

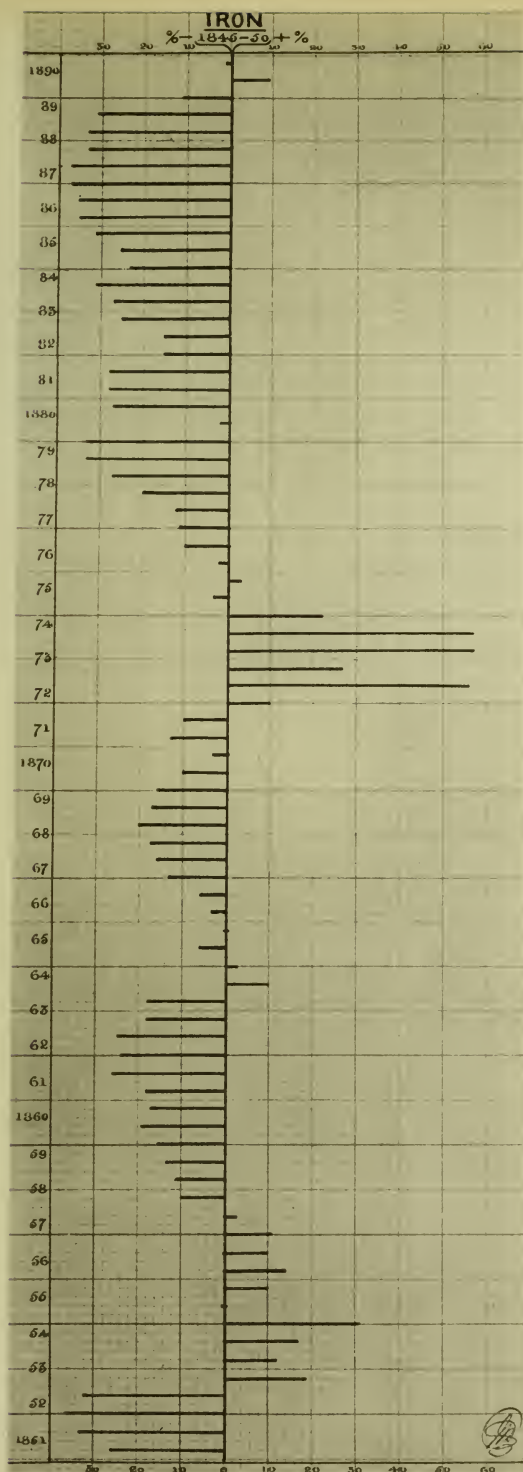


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Iron, from 1851 to 1890

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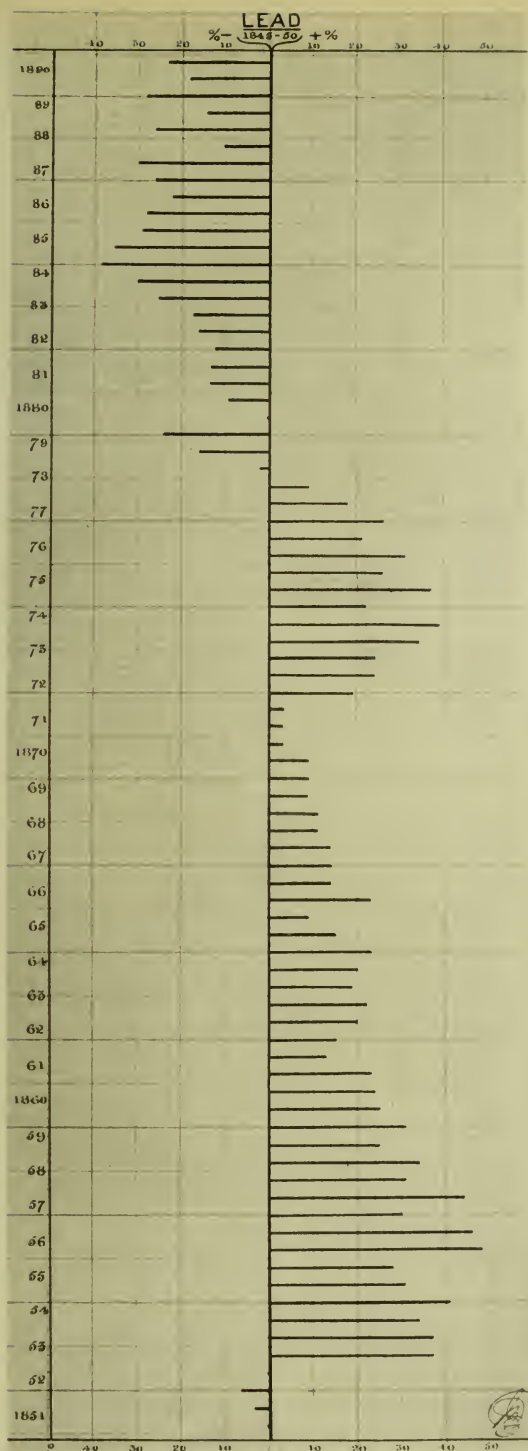


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Lead, from 1851 to 1890

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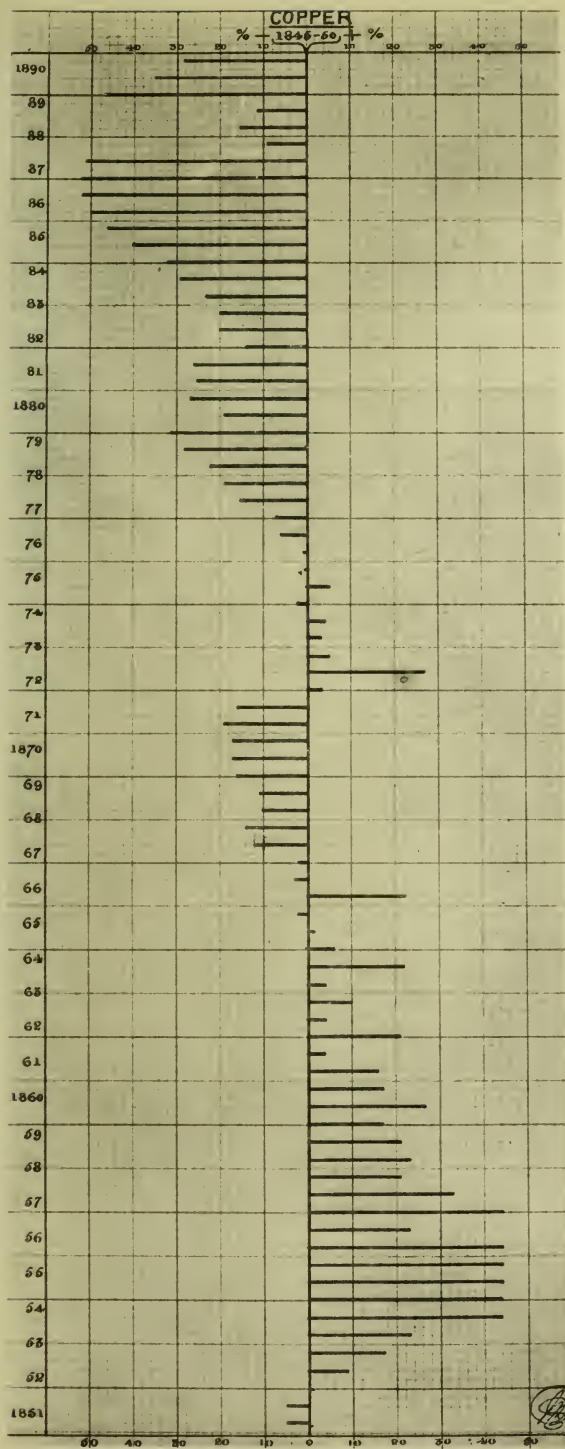


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Copper, from 1851 to 1890

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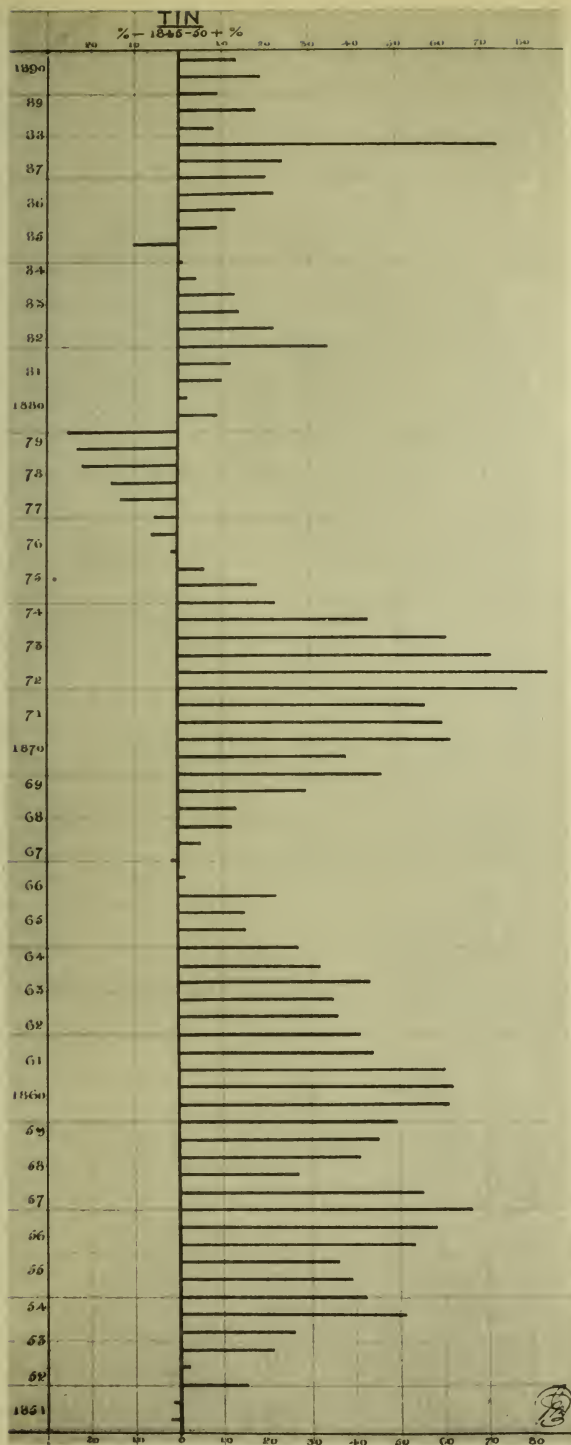


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Tin, from 1851 to 1890

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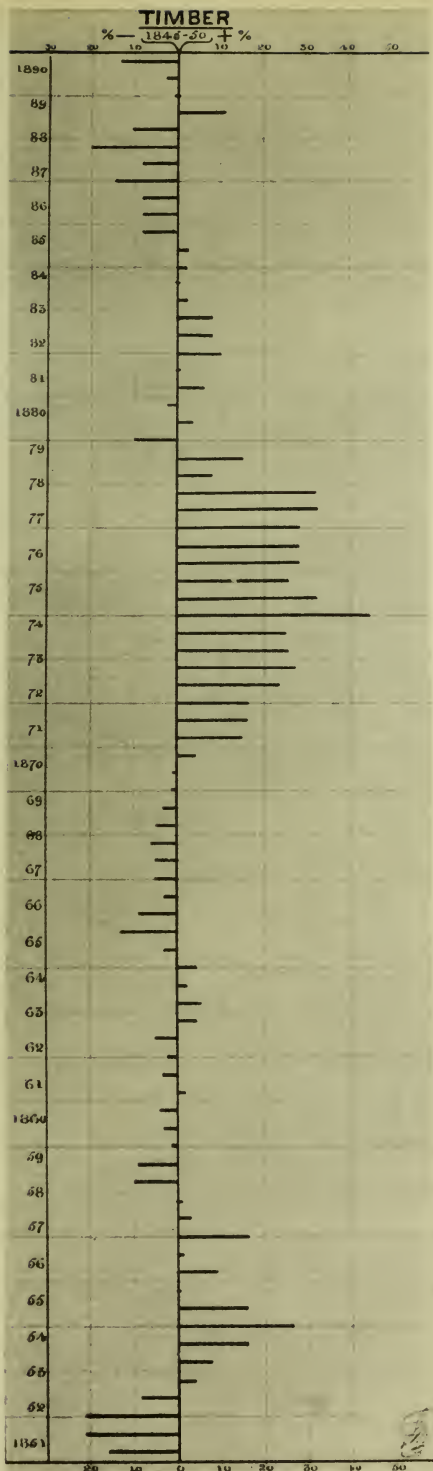


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Timber, from 1851 to 1890

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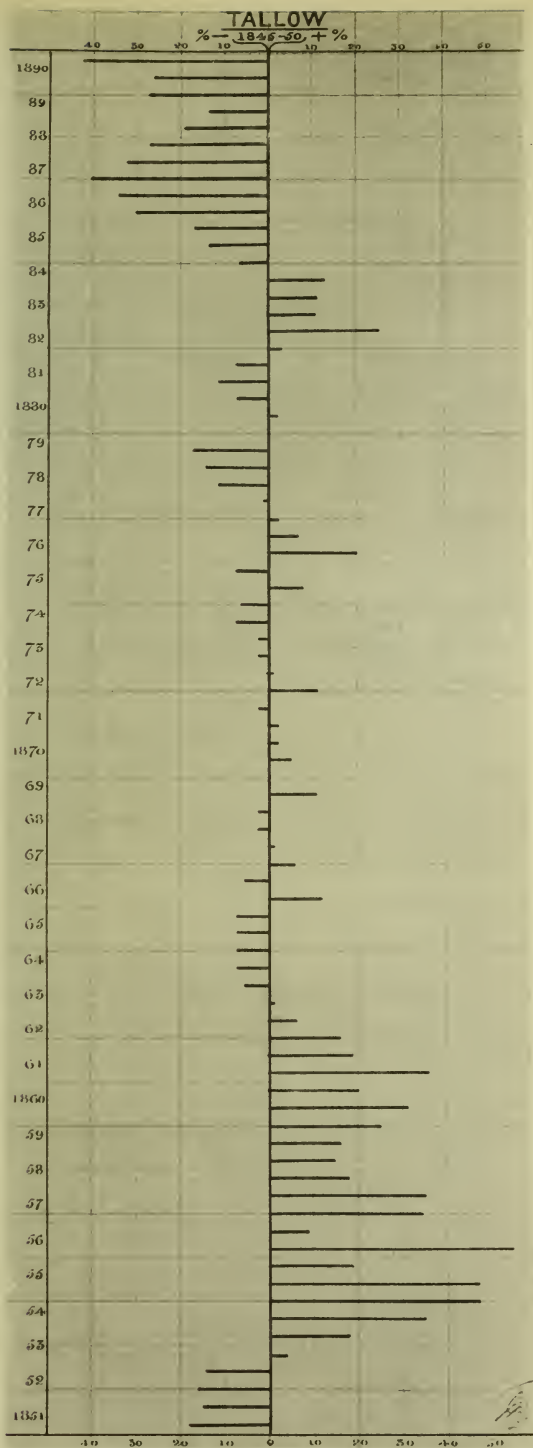


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Tallow, from 1851 to 1890

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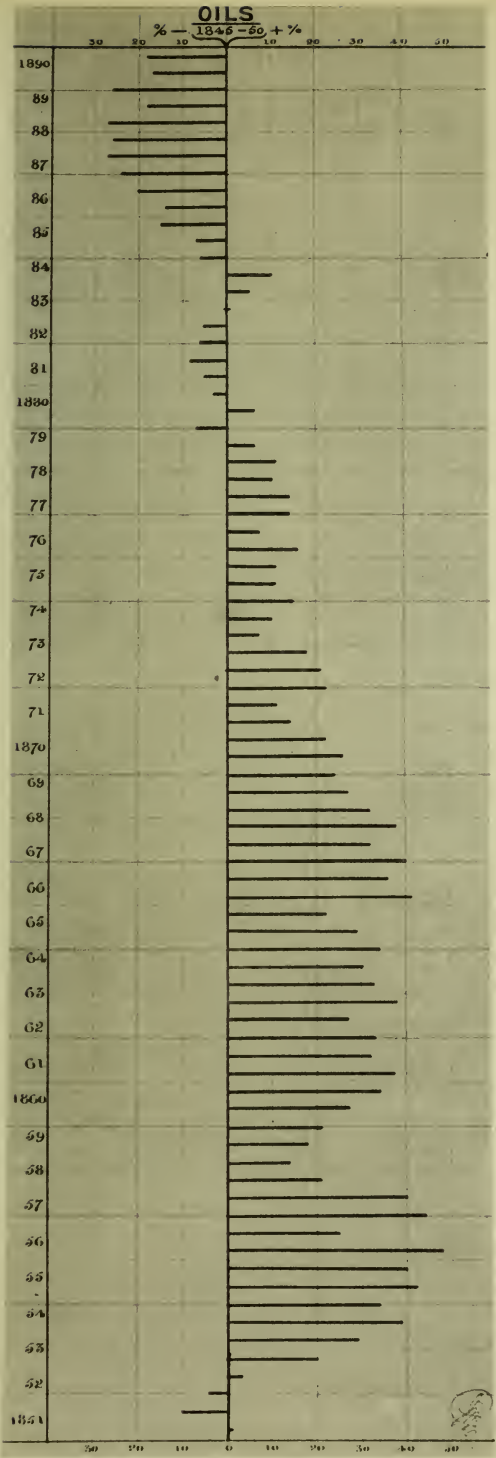


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Oils, from 1851 to 1890

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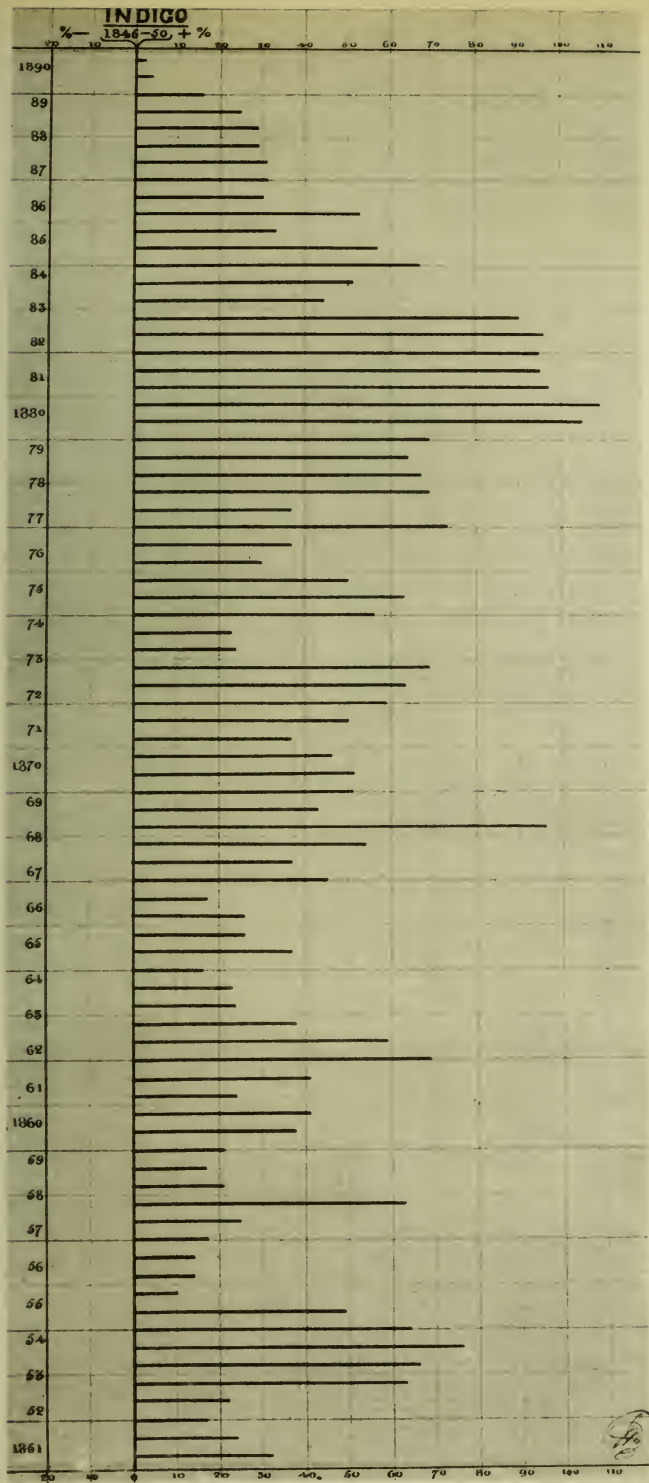


Diagram showing as percentages on the average price 1846-50  
the fluctuations in the price of Indigo, from 1851 to 1890

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# MONEY - Minimum Bank Rate of DISCOUNT

## LONDON

## PARIS

## BERLIN

1890	4 6
89	2 1/2
88	2 1/2
87	2 1/2
86	2 1/2
85	2 1/2
84	2 1/2
83	2 1/2
82	2 1/2
81	2 1/2
1880	2 1/2
79	2 1/2
78	2 1/2
77	2 1/2
76	2 1/2
75	2 1/2
74	2 1/2
73	2 1/2
72	2 1/2
71	2 1/2
1870	2 1/2
69	2 1/2
68	2 1/2
67	2 1/2
66	2 1/2
65	2 1/2
64	2 1/2
63	2 1/2
62	2 1/2
61	2 1/2
1860	2 1/2
59	2 1/2
58	2 1/2
57	2 1/2
56	2 1/2
55	2 1/2
54	2 1/2
53	2 1/2
52	2 1/2
1851	2 1/2

1890	3 0
89	2 1/2
88	2 1/2
87	2 1/2
86	2 1/2
85	2 1/2
84	2 1/2
83	2 1/2
82	2 1/2
81	2 1/2
1880	2 1/2
79	2 1/2
78	2 1/2
77	2 1/2
76	2 1/2
75	2 1/2
74	2 1/2
73	2 1/2
72	2 1/2
71	2 1/2
1870	2 1/2
69	2 1/2
68	2 1/2
67	2 1/2
66	2 1/2
65	2 1/2
64	2 1/2
63	2 1/2
62	2 1/2
61	2 1/2
1860	2 1/2
59	2 1/2
58	2 1/2
57	2 1/2
56	2 1/2
55	2 1/2
54	2 1/2
53	2 1/2
52	2 1/2
1851	2 1/2

1890	4 1/2
89	4 1/2
88	4 1/2
87	4 1/2
86	4 1/2
85	4 1/2
84	4 1/2
83	4 1/2
82	4 1/2
81	4 1/2
1880	4 1/2
79	4 1/2
78	4 1/2
77	4 1/2
76	4 1/2
75	4 1/2
74	4 1/2
73	4 1/2
72	4 1/2
71	4 1/2
1870	4 1/2
69	4 1/2
68	4 1/2
67	4 1/2
66	4 1/2
65	4 1/2
64	4 1/2
63	4 1/2
62	4 1/2
61	4 1/2
1860	4 1/2
59	4 1/2
58	4 1/2
57	4 1/2
56	4 1/2
55	4 1/2
54	4 1/2
53	4 1/2
52	4 1/2
1851	4 1/2

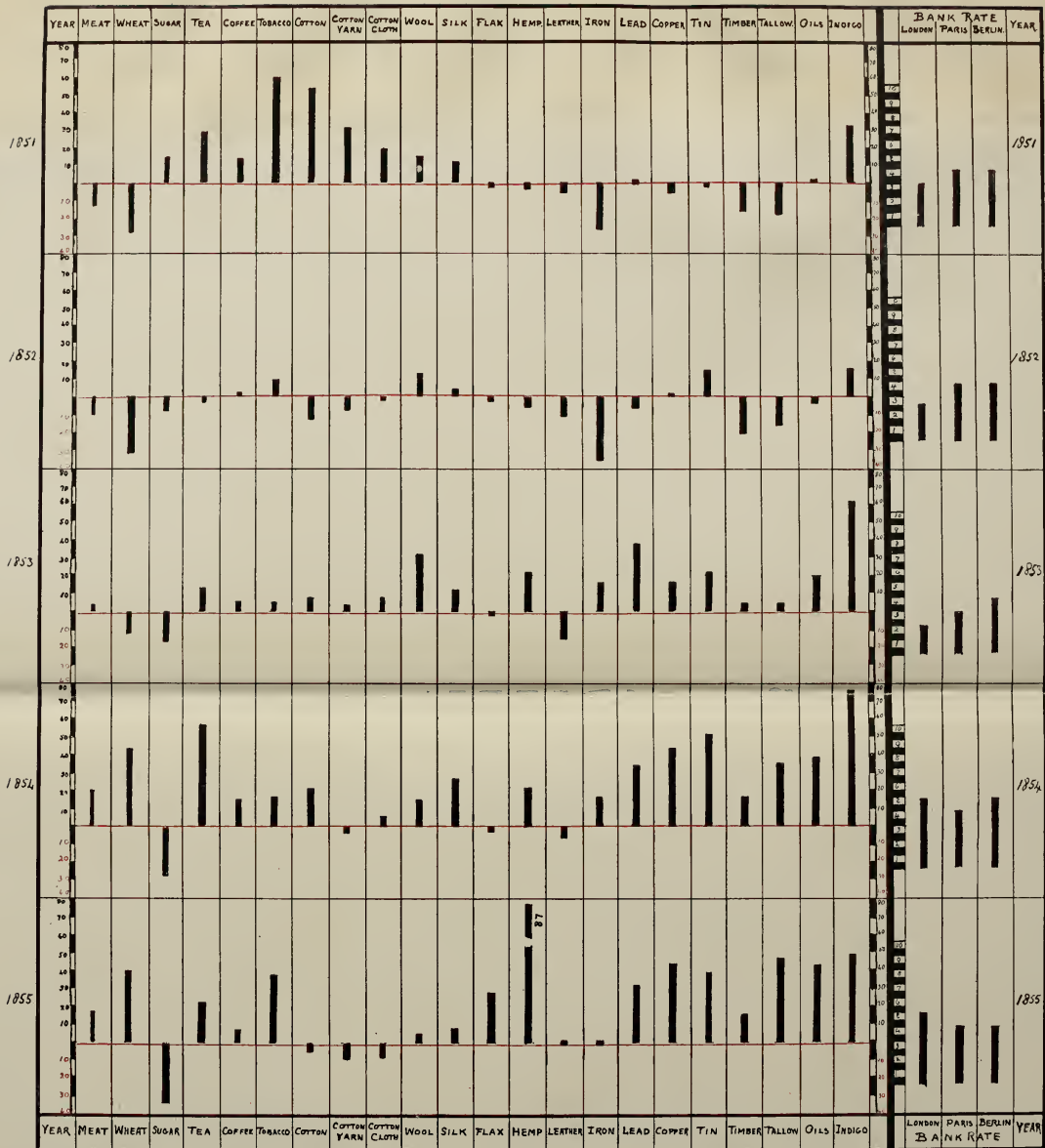
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1851 - 1855

YEAR	MEAT	WHEAT	SUGAR	TEA	COFFEE	TOBACCO	COTTON	COTTON YARN	COTTON CLOTH	WOOL	SILK	FLAX	HEMP	LEATHER	IRON	LEAD	COPPER	TIN	TIMBER	TALLOW	OILS	INDIGO	BANK RATE LONDON PARIS BERLIN	YEAR
50																								
70																								
5																								
20																								
40																								
25																								

THE LIBRARY  
OF THE  
MUSEUM OF COMMERCE  
LONDON

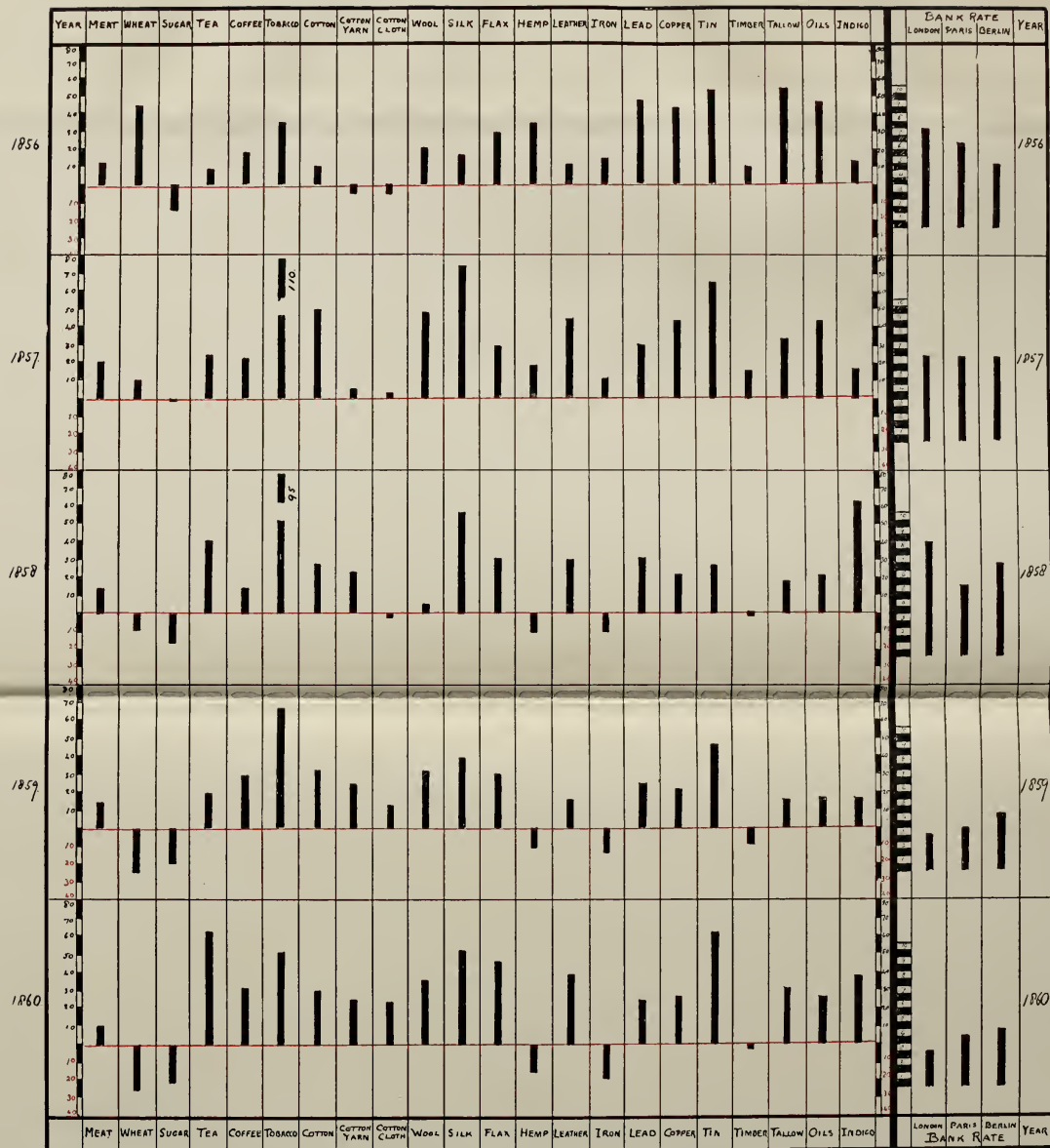
1851 - 1855



1856 - 1860

[illegible]

1856 - 1860



1861-1865

YEAR	MEAT	WHEAT	SUGAR	TEA	COFFEE	TOBACCO	COTTON	COTTON YARN	COTTON CLOTH	WOOL	SILK	FLAX	HEMP	LEATHER	IRON	LEAD	COPPER	TIN	TIMBER	TALLOW	OILS	INDIGO	LONDON	PARIS	BELGI	YEAR
1861	10										10												10			1861
1862	10										10												10			1862
1863	10										10												10			1863
1864	10										10												10			1864
1865	10										10												10			1865

1861-1865

1861

1862

1863

1864

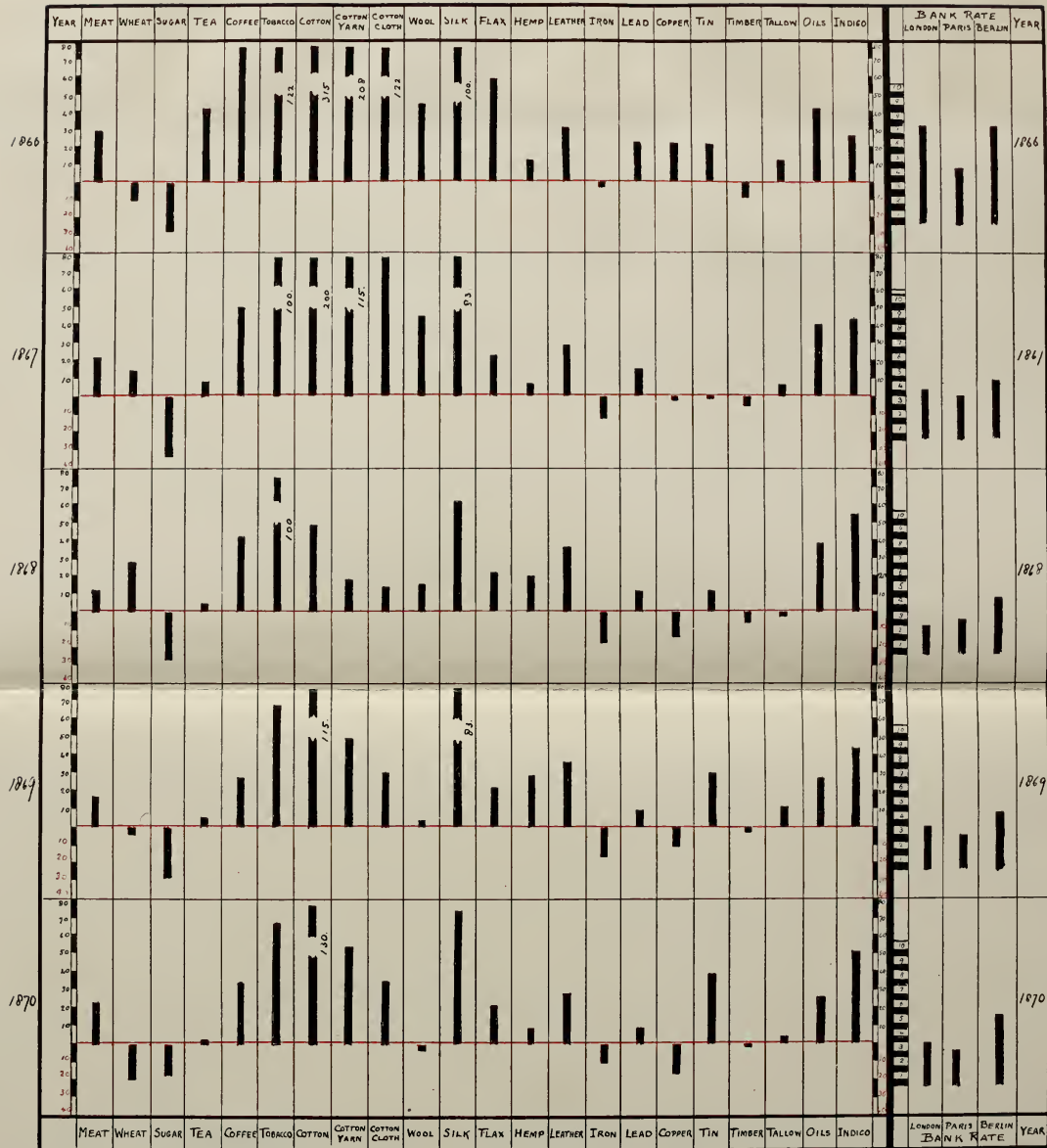
1865



1866-1870

[illegible]

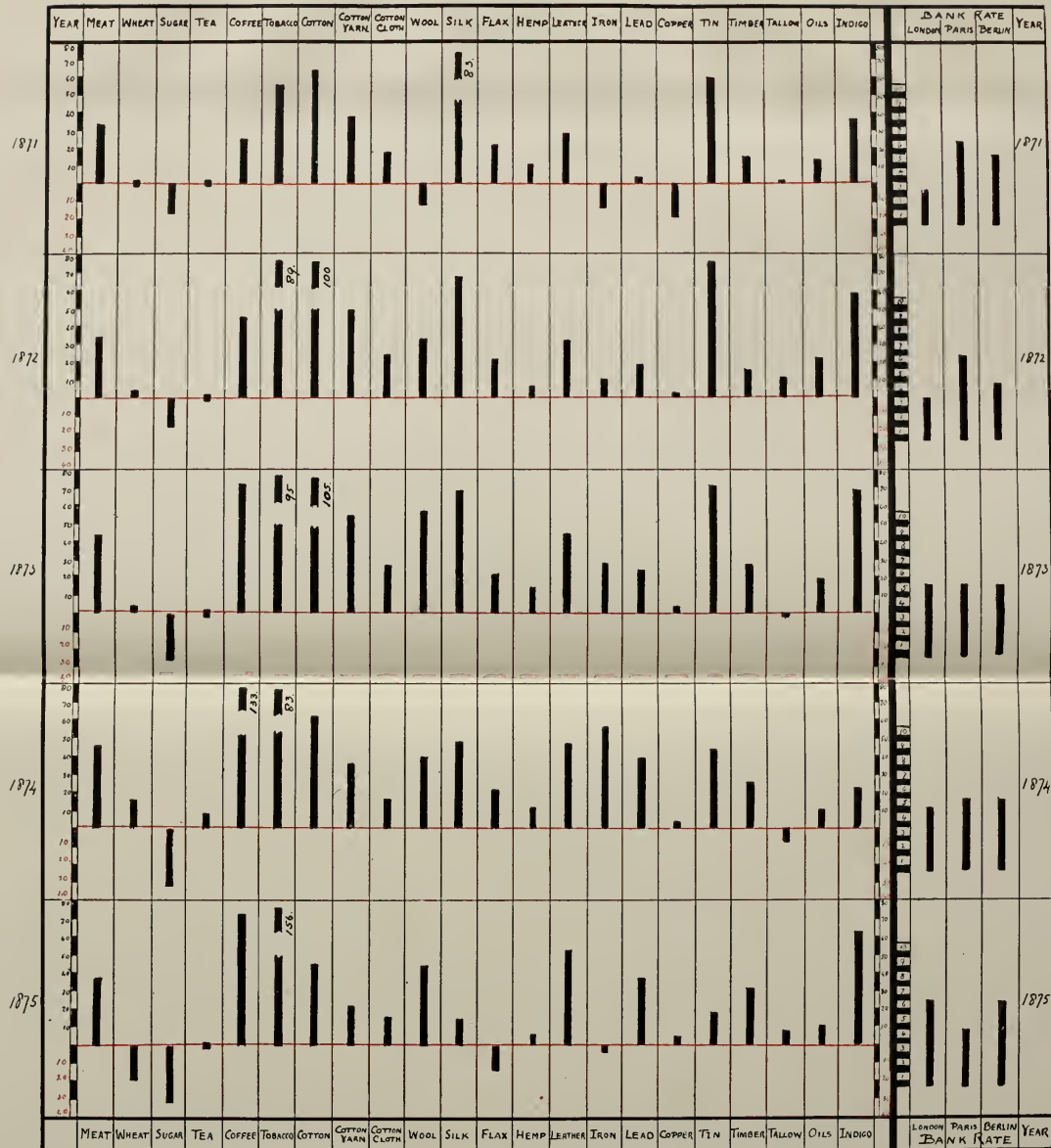
1866 - 1870



1871 - 1875

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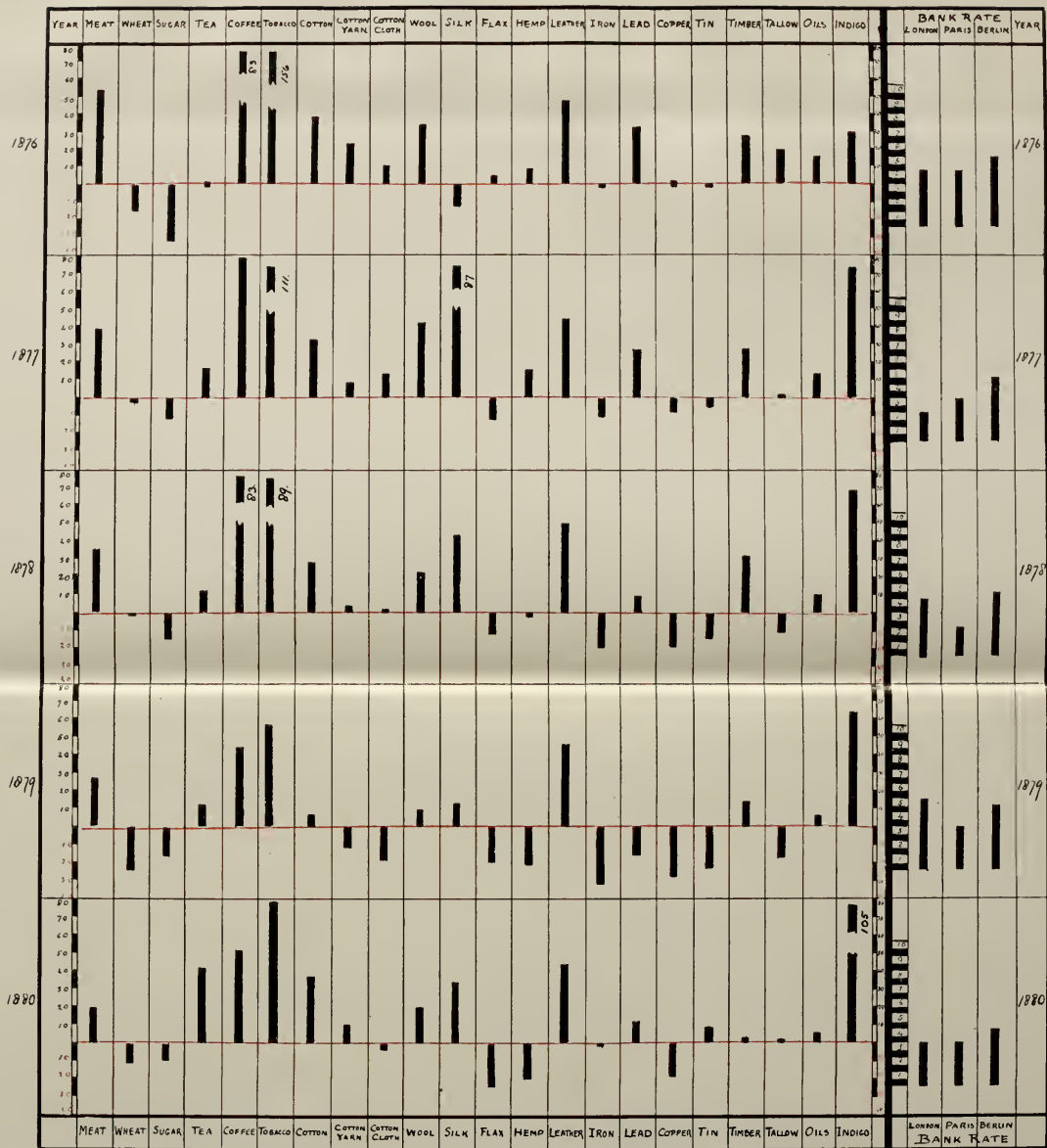
1871 - 1875



1876 - 1880 -

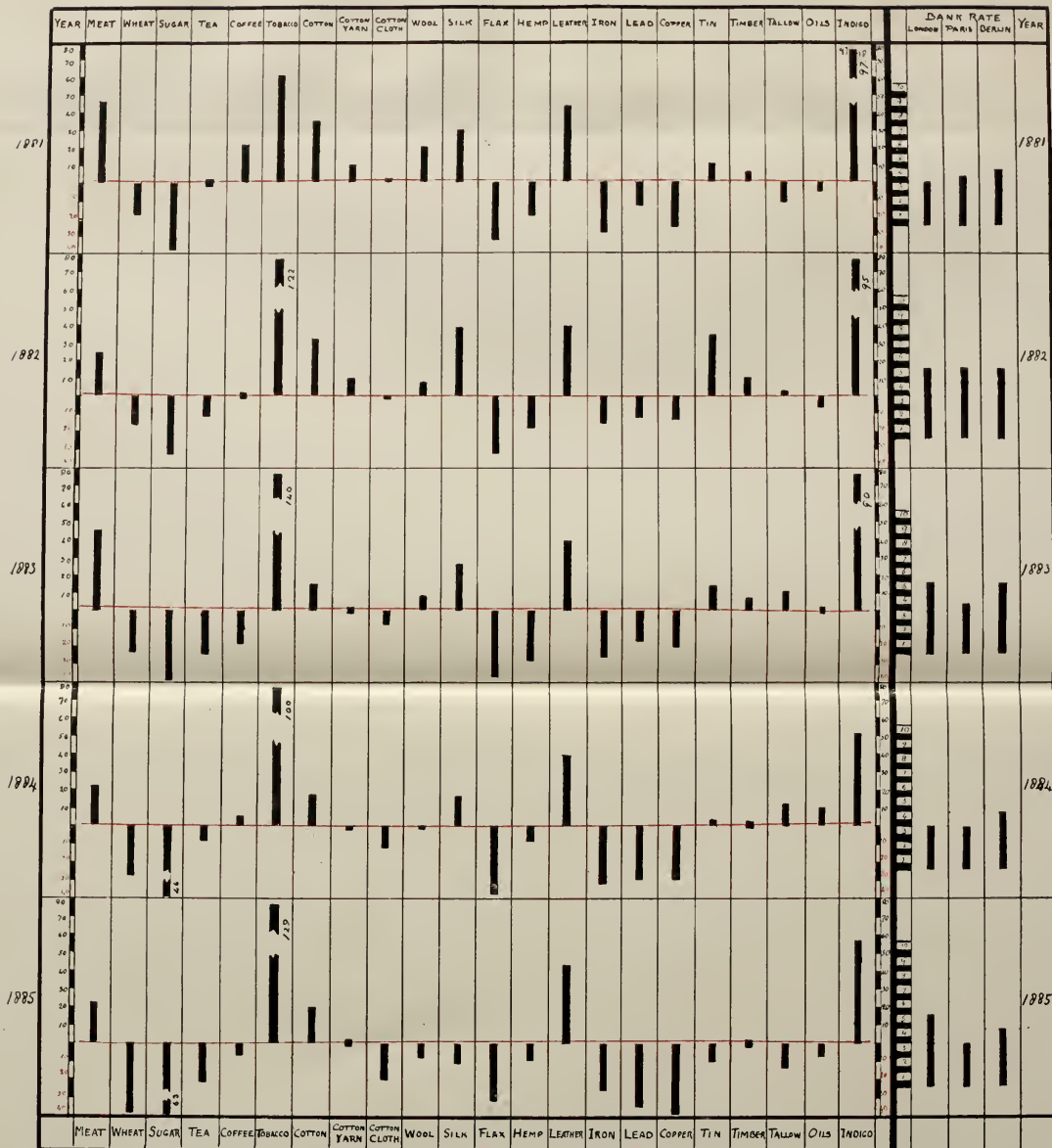
[illegible]

1876 - 1880



1881 - 1885

YEAR	MERT	WHEAT	SUGAR	TEA	COFFEE	TOBACCO	COTTON	COTTON YARN	WOOL	SILK	FLAX	HEMP	LEATHER	IRON	LEAD	COPPER	TIN	TIMBER	TALLOW	OILS	INDIGO	DANK RATE	PARIS	BERLIN	YEAR
1881	70																				91	100			1881
1882	70																				91	100			1882
1883	70																				91	100			1883
1884	70																				91	100			1884
1885	70																				91	100			1885



[illegible]

1886

1886 - 1890

1886

1887

1888

1889

1890

YEAR	MEAT	WHEAT	SUGAR	TEA	COFFEE	TOBACCO	COTTON	COTTON YARN	COTTON CLOTH	WOOL	SILK	FLAX	HEMP	LEATHER	IRON	LEAD	COPPER	TIN	TIMBER	TALLOW	OILS	INDIGO	BANK RATE				YEAR
																								LONDON	PARIS	BERLIN	
1886						115																					1886
1887						100																					1887
1888						144																					1888
1889						127																					1889
1890						93																					1890
	MEAT	WHEAT	SUGAR	TEA	COFFEE	TOBACCO	COTTON	COTTON YARN	COTTON CLOTH	WOOL	SILK	FLAX	HEMP	LEATHER	IRON	LEAD	COPPER	TIN	TIMBER	TALLOW	OILS	INDIGO	LONDON	PARIS	BERLIN	BANK RATE	YEAR

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TABLE SHOWING FLUCTUATIONS FROM 1851 TO 1890. THE AVERAGE

Year.	Meat.	Wheat.	Sugar.	Tea.	Coffee.	Tobacco.	Cotton	Cotton Yarn.	Cotton Cloth.	Wool.	Silk.	Flax.
1851	87	73	115	129	114	160	155	129	119	114	112	98
2	90	70	93	98	101	110	89	92	98	113	104	98
3	103	88	82	113	105	105	107	102	109	132	112	98
4	120	143	72	156	115	117	121	96	105	115	127	98
5	117	140	66	122	107	139	95	89	91	105	109	130
6	112	145	87	108	118	135	110	95	94	120	117	130
7	120	110	99	124	122	210	150	106	102	148	174	130
8	114	90	83	140	114	195	127	123	99	105	156	130
9	114	75	80	119	129	166	132	124	112	131	139	130
1860	109	73	78	162	131	150	130	125	124	136	152	147
1	122	101	77	151	131	133	141	128	125	154	161	147
2	121	117	70	126	153	189	230	152	127	141	139	147
3	108	86	65	126	160	322	470	308	222	141	149	147
4	116	75	85	124	152	322	540	349	275	154	139	146
5	123	72	65	108	161	322	280	323	252	159	157	158
6	129	89	72	141	179	222	415	308	222	144	200	159
7	121	113	66	108	149	200	300	215	178	144	183	123
8	112	127	73	104	141	200	148	118	114	115	161	122
9	117	96	72	105	127	167	215	149	131	104	183	122
1870	123	80	83	102	134	167	230	154	135	96	174	122
1	133	100	83	100	125	155	165	138	118	88	183	122
2	134	104	83	100	145	189	200	149	125	133	169	122
3	144	104	74	100	171	195	205	154	126	157	169	122
4	146	116	68	108	233	183	162	136	116	140	149	122
5	137	80	68	100	173	256	145	122	116	145	115	87
6	153	84	67	100	183	256	138	123	111	133	87	104
7	138	97	88	116	178	211	132	108	113	141	187	88
8	135	98	85	111	183	189	127	104	101	122	143	88
9	127	75	83	111	143	156	106	88	81	109	113	80
1880	119	88	90	141	151	180	137	110	95	120	135	75
1	146	82	60	100	122	161	135	110	101	120	130	67
2	125	84	67	89	100	222	132	110	99	103	139	68
3	145	77	60	76	82	240	115	100	92	106	126	63
4	123	73	54	92	106	200	117	99	88	98	117	63
5	122	60	37	78	93	228	120	100	80	92	89	68
6	106	57	50	93	85	216	98	83	85	90	93	68
7	112	66	38	73	132	200	105	86	84	116	130	73
8	108	58	49	64	166	244	115	80	87	111	117	62
9	100	57	50	70	172	227	108	93	88	107	110	63
1890	133	57	35	99	183	222	112	93	91	91	114	53

PRICE OF EACH FROM 1846 TO 1850 BEING REPRESENTED BY 100.

Hemp.	Leather.	Iron.	Lead.	Copper.	Tin.	Timber.	Tallow.	Oils.	Indigo.	Bank Rate, Actual.		
										London.	Paris.	Berlin.
96	95	74	100	95	98	84	82	101	132	3	4	4
95	89	64	94	101	115	79	84	96	117	2½	4	4
122	84	119	137	117	122	104	104	120	163	2	3	4
122	95	117	134	144	151	116	135	139	176	5	4	5
187	100	100	131	144	139	116	147	142	149	5	4	4
135	111	114	148	144	153	109	155	148	114	7	6	4½
118	145	111	130	144	166	116	134	144	117	6	6	6
90	130	90	131	121	127	100	118	121	163	8	5	6½
90	116	87	125	121	145	91	116	118	117	2½	3	4
87	139	81	125	127	161	97	131	127	138	2½	3½	4
106	130	82	123	116	160	101	136	137	124	6	4½	4½
110	133	76	115	121	141	98	116	133	169	3	5	4½
120	133	82	122	110	135	104	101	138	138	3	4	4½
122	133	110	120	122	132	102	93	130	123	7	7	4½
97	131	94	115	101	115	97	93	129	137	6	4½	6
112	131	97	123	122	122	91	112	141	126	7	4	7
106	128	87	114	98	99	95	106	140	145	3½	3	4
120	136	82	111	86	112	94	98	138	154	2	2½	4
128	136	83	109	89	129	97	111	127	143	3	2½	4
109	128	90	109	83	138	99	105	126	151	3	2½	5
109	128	87	103	81	160	115	102	114	137	2½	6	5
106	133	110	119	103	177	116	111	122	159	3	6	4
114	144	127	124	105	171	127	98	118	169	5	5	5
111	147	157	139	104	143	125	93	110	123	4½	5	5
106	153	96	137	105	118	132	108	111	163	6	4	6
109	147	98	131	100	99	128	120	116	130	4	4	5
116	144	89	126	93	95	128	102	114	173	2	3	4½
99	150	80	109	81	85	132	89	110	169	4	2	4½
79	146	67	84	72	77	115	83	106	164	5	3	4½
80	144	98	112	81	109	103	102	106	205	3	3	4
81	144	72	87	75	110	106	89	95	197	3	3½	4
82	139	85	88	96	134	110	103	94	195	5	5	5
73	139	75	83	80	114	108	111	100	190	5	3½	5
91	139	69	70	71	104	100	113	110	151	3	3	4
91	144	74	65	60	90	100	87	93	157	5	3	4
89	142	68	72	50	113	92	70	86	153	4	3	4
89	136	63	74	48	120	86	60	76	131	5	3	5
73	133	67	90	91	173	80	73	74	129	4	3	3
73	130	69	86	89	118	111	87	82	125	5	4½	4½
81	130	109	82	65	119	98	74	83	104	6	3	5

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A CONTRIBUTION TOWARDS AN INVESTIGATION OF THE  
CHANGES WHICH HAVE TAKEN PLACE IN THE CON-  
DITION OF THE PEOPLE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM  
DURING THE EIGHT YEARS EXTENDING FROM THE  
HARVEST OF 1839 TO THE HARVEST OF 1847;

AND

AN ATTEMPT TO DEVELOPE THE CONNECTION (IF ANY) BETWEEN THE CHANGES  
OBSERVED AND THE VARIATIONS OCCURRING DURING THE SAME PERIOD  
IN THE PRICES OF THE MOST NECESSARY ARTICLES OF FOOD.

[READ BEFORE THE STATISTICAL SOCIETY 21st Feb., 1848.]

IN limiting the scope of the proposed inquiry to the period referred to in the title, I have been governed by two considerations:—one arising from a view of the purpose with which, chiefly, I entered upon the subject; and the other from a careful estimate of the means by which I could best hope to accomplish it.

1. The commercial distress which has so strongly marked the year just closed, would appear to be, in the main, only a recurrence of a state of things which has become in some degree periodical. Effects occurring repeatedly, at intervals having some appearance of regularity, seem to indicate a corresponding regularity in the recurrence of their causes; and a desire, if not to uncover these causes, yet to begin the work, in the hope of being followed by those better fitted to accomplish it, led me to the labour, the results of which I have now the honour of presenting to the Society.

In looking back from 1847 for a period in some degree similar, the year 1839 is the first in which we find the affairs of the country in a condition so far analogous as to justify the expectation that we may here discover in operation influences of a similar character; and the eight or ten years preceding 1839 do not appear to afford any better, if so good a starting point for the investigation in view.

2. Leaving the purpose of the enquiry, and looking to its means, I find, also, that the sources of information upon

which, principally, I have to rely, do not in general extend much, if any, farther back than the year 1839. This remark applies particularly to the tests of the condition of the people afforded by the Reports of the Poor Law Commissioners,—by the Returns of the funds deposited in Savings Banks,—and by the Reports of the Registrar-General of Births, Deaths, and Marriages: upon which, as will appear in the sequel, we have mainly to rely, in the first and most important branch of the enquiry.

As to the method of the investigation.—Regarding this Paper rather as a basis for future and more ample enquiry, than as likely itself to effect the desired end, and trusting by it to pave the way for abler and better aided efforts, I have endeavoured to preserve, in the methods I have used, as much simplicity and distinctness as possible, so as to render the results of what I have done easy of adoption into the enquiries of others, wherever they may be deemed worthy of it.

The part of the enquiry to be first pursued is, obviously, that which shall develope the actual condition of the people, and the changes which took place in it, during the period in question; and here the materials afforded by the Annual Reports of the Poor Law Commissioners seem to be first entitled to attention, as well from the nature of the information they afford, as from the extent and the comparative completeness of the arrangements under which it has been collected and recorded.

These Reports furnish the means of determining two lines of variation (so to speak), extending through the period in view—one describing the varying amount of the expenditure upon the relief and maintenance of the poor, and the other the varying numbers of the persons receiving relief as paupers. The former is much affected by concurrent variations in the prices of food, and of the labour and materials required for building and repairs, and for furniture, clothing, &c., in connection with the administration of the relief. The latter is

probably also disturbed, in some degree (as an indication of the actual amount of pauperism for the time being), by variations, as well in the principles upon which the relief was administered during these eight years, as in the degree of order and economy prevailing in the details of the administration itself. It is clear, however, that of the two lines of fluctuation, the latter—that which marks the variations in *the number of persons relieved*—is the best adapted for the present purpose.

The Commissioners have, in each of their annual reports, stated the number of persons relieved in the Lady-day quarter of the preceding year, and the proportion it bore to the total population of England and Wales in 1841,—as evidence, when compared with the like proportion of the year before, of the increase or decrease of pauperism, that being the quarter in which, invariably, the number of paupers is greatest in each year. This method is obviously liable to the objection that, as the population is increasing, the proportion of pauperism to population, so deduced, cannot be true for any year after 1841, and must in every subsequent year be removed farther from the truth. But the average increment of the population is ascertainable by methods not liable to any material error. If, therefore, it be assumed that the number of persons relieved in each year is accurately stated, it is clear that whatever value may belong to a comparison of this description, as evidence of the increasing or diminishing prosperity of the people, is within easy reach.

It is generally known that, according to the censuses, of 1821, 1831, and 1841, the population of England and Wales increased, in the first decennial period about 16, and in the second about 14·5 per cent. For such a purpose as the present, it might suffice to assume a continuation from 1841 to 1847 of the rate of increase found to prevail between 1831 and 1841. Various considerations, however, favour the adoption of the mean annual rate of the whole twenty years

from 1821 to 1841 as the more likely to accord with the fact. This gives 1·428 per cent. as the mean rate of increase per annum. The following table presents the results of the calculation for each year, and also shows the proportion borne by the number of paupers relieved in the winter quarter, ending at Lady-day in each year, to the (computed) population of the same year:—

YEARS.	Population of England and Wales	Number of Per- sons who received Relief in the Quarter ending Lady-Day.	Number of Paupers to every 10,000 of the Population.	Increase or decrease per 10,000 in each year as compared with the average of the whole eight years.
				PER CENT.
1839	15,461,300	1,134,165	735	—101 = 12·08
1840	15,684,000	1,199,529	763	— 73 = 8·73
1841	15,906,700	1,300,928	817	— 19 = 2·27
1842	16,132,600	1,427,187	884	+ 48 = 5·74
1843	16,361,600	1,546,390	945	+109 = 13·03
1844	16,593,900	1,477,561	890	+ 54 = 6·45
1845	16,829,600	1,470,970	874	+ 38 = 4·54
1846	17,068,500	1,330,557	779	— 57 = 6·81
			Av. 836	

It will be observed that there was a progressive increase in the proportion of pauperism to population from the Lady-day quarter of 1839 to the corresponding quarter of 1843:—the whole increase, during the four years, being from 735 to 945 paupers for each 10,000 of population. But the period between Lady-day, 1843, and Lady-day, 1844, appears to have brought a change for the better; which not only stayed this progressive increase of the proportion of pauperism to population, but substituted for it a progressive decrease. There is exhibited, indeed, at the latter date (Lady-day, 1844), not only a diminution of this proportion, but an absolute and a considerable reduction in the numbers relieved;—which reduction appears to have continued, thenceforward, year by year, to the end of the period in view.

The above table affords no indication of the particular time, between Lady-day, 1843, and Lady-day, 1844, at which the

change for the better, so strongly marked, began. The extent of the change, had we no further evidence, might suffice to support the inference that it began early in the year ending Lady-day, 1844; but the Tenth Annual Report of the Poor Law Commissioners, made in May, 1844, affords evidence of a more precise description.

The gradual and constant increase of the Poor Law expenditure, with the increase of the numbers relieved, had been watched by the Commissioners for some years with anxiety; and the first appearance of a decline excited a corresponding degree of attention. In one of the earlier pages of the Report just referred to (the first issued after the change had been observed), they introduce the subject thus: "We rejoice to be able to state that the progress of pauperism, which had been constant from the year 1837 to Lady-day, 1843, was arrested in the course of last year, and that the expenditure for the half-year ending Michaelmas, 1843, exhibits a diminution of £139,926 as compared with the corresponding half-year for 1842." It will be observed that the circumstance here adduced by the Commissioners, apparently as evidence of "the progress of pauperism" having been arrested, in fact only proves that the relief of the pauperism of the kingdom, whatever its extent, had become less expensive; which, though it answered the purpose of the Commissioners, obviously does not answer that of the present enquiry. But in the Appendix to the same Report is a Table in which is stated the number of persons relieved in England and Wales, and also in each county, in the quarters ending respectively at Michaelmas, 1842, and Michaelmas, 1843. We are thus enabled to mark the proportion of pauperism to population, as before, at a point mid-way between the Lady-day quarters of 1842 and 1843, and again mid-way between those of 1843 and 1844. The following statement for this purpose may be considered supplementary to that already given:—

YEARS.	Quarter ending.	Number of Persons who received Relief as Paupers.	Population of England & Wales, (compute:1)	Number of Paupers to every 10,000 of the popu- lation.	Decrease per 10,000 between <b>MICHAELMAS 1842 and MICHAELMAS 1843.</b>
1842	Michaelmas .	1,372,642	16,247,100	<b>844</b>	<b>—59</b>
1843	Lady-Day ...	1,546,390	16,361,600	945	
"	Michaelmas .	1,294,574	16,477,250	<b>785</b>	
1844	Lady-Day ...	1,477,561	16,593,900	890	

The number used for the population at Michaelmas of each year is the mean of the numbers used for the Lady-day quarters preceding and following.

Thus, so far as the Poor Law Returns are to be relied upon, there would appear to have been a gradual declension of the condition of the people of England and Wales, generally, from the beginning of the year 1839 down to a period subsequent to Lady-day and anterior to Michaelmas, 1843; and that from this period forward to the Lady-day quarter of 1846 there was a nearly corresponding elevation of their condition.

If, however, we examine the returns separately for each county, it soon becomes apparent that the gradual increase of pauperism down to 1843, and its subsequent decrease, as exhibited for the aggregate of England and Wales, is the result of an average, which covers great variations in different parts of the kingdom; and, in particular, that the movement, during the whole period, differed widely in the agricultural and the manufacturing districts.

In order to make the nature and the extent of these variations in some degree obvious, and susceptible of more easy examination, it may be sufficient to select two groups of the districts for which separate returns are made, such as may represent with tolerable accuracy the agricultural and manufacturing portions of the kingdom; and after repeating for each the calculations (as to the annual increment of the population) previously made for the entire kingdom, to throw the results for each group of districts into the form already adopted.

For this purpose I select the county of Lancaster and the West Riding of the county of York as containing the principal manufacturing districts, and not ill representing the remainder. These contained in 1841 an aggregate population of 2,821,988, and the mean annual increase in each, during the twenty years from 1821 to 1841 was—

In Lancaster .....	2·324 per cent.
York, W. R. ....	1·845 „

To represent the agricultural districts I take the nine counties of Northumberland, Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridge, Bucks, Herts, Berks, Wilts, and Devon. These contain, I believe, the greater part of the purely agricultural population of the kingdom; and they also include a portion of every agricultural locality of importance. Their aggregate population in 1841 was 2,409,717; and the mean annual increase of the population in each county during the twenty years from 1821 to 1841 was as follows:—

	PER CENT.		PER CENT.
Northumberland....	1·154	Herts.....	·967
Norfolk.....	·908	Berks.....	·974
Suffolk.....	·766	Wilts.....	·789
Cambridge.....	1·509	Devon.....	·981
Bucks.....	·760		

The computation of the proportion of pauperism to population in these districts, for a comparative purpose, is in some degree impeded by the circumstance that the number of Unions from which returns were received was not the same throughout. In 1840 the number was 577, and in 1846 it had been increased to 588; and the successive changes in this respect affect both groups of districts in each of the first four years observed. The correction rendered necessary by this variation involves two distinct computations for each year; and also makes it more convenient to compare each year with

*The following Table exhibits the Population (computed on these bases) of each District, or group of Districts, for each year from 1840 to 1847 inclusive.*

	1840	1841	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	1847
Lancaster .....	1,629,259	1,667,064	1,705,739	1,745,312	1,785,805	1,827,245	1,869,654	1,913,119
York, W. R. ...	1,134,058	1,154,924	1,176,174	1,197,815	1,219,844	1,242,289	1,265,147	1,288,424
	2,763,312	2,821,988	2,881,913	2,943,127	3,005,649	3,069,534	3,134,801	3,201,543
Northumberland .	247,416	250,268	253,149	256,060	259,005	261,983	264,995	268,042
Norfolk ... ..	408,941	412,621	416,334	420,081	423,861	427,675	431,524	435,408
Suffolk .. .	312,749	315,129	317,523	319,936	322,363	324,813	327,281	329,771
Cambridge .....	162,073	164,509	166,976	169,480	172,016	174,596	177,209	179,868
Bucks .....	154,819	155,989	157,169	158,359	159,559	160,769	161,989	163,219
Herts .....	155,742	157,237	158,746	160,269	161,807	163,360	164,928	166,511
Berks .....	158,676	160,226	161,780	163,349	164,933	166,532	168,146	169,775
Wilts .....	257,996	260,007	262,024	264,067	266,126	268,191	270,262	272,349
Devon .....	528,551	533,731	538,961	544,242	549,575	554,961	560,401	565,896
	2,386,963	2,409,717	2,432,662	2,455,843	2,479,245	2,502,880	2,526,735	2,550,839
England & Wales	15,684,000	15,906,700	16,132,600	16,361,600	16,593,900	16,829,600	17,068,500	17,310,900

the one preceding than (as before) each with the average of all. Consequently the form of the table is less simple than that adopted for the entire kingdom.

MANUFACTURING DISTRICTS.								
Years	Aggregate Population of the selected Districts.	Years Compared.	Number of Unions in England and Wales, from which returns were received in both the years compared.	Number of Paupers relieved in the selected districts in the Quarter ending Lady-day.	Number of Paupers to every 10,000 of the population	Years Compared.	Increase per 10,000 in each year as compared with the year preceding.	Decrease per 10,000 in each year, as compared with the year preceding.
1840	2,763,312	1840 } 1841 }	577 {	102,124 110,827	372 392	1840 } 1841 }	20 ( 5.37 p.ct)	—
1841	2,821,988	1841 } 1842 }	581 {	121,294 160,043	429 555	1841 } 1842 }	126 (29.37 p.ct)	—
1842	2,881,913	1842 } 1843 }	584 {	176,037 209,615	610 712	1842 } 1843 }	102 (16.72 p.ct)	—
1843	2,943,127	1843 } 1844 }	585 {	214,425 154,616	728 511	1843 } 1844 }	—	217 (29.80 p.ct)
1844	3,005,649	1844 } 1845 }	585 {	154,616 133,020	511 433	1844 } 1845 }	—	78 15.26 p.ct.
1845	3,069,534	1845 } 1846 }	588 {	133,020 121,876	433 380	1845 } 1846 }	—	53 (12.24 p.ct)
<p>* It was not until 1840, apparently, that any return was published of the numbers relieved in particular Counties.</p>								

It is apparent from these tables that the change for the better, in the proportion of pauperism to population, observed in England and Wales generally, between the Lady-day quarters of 1843 and 1844, was, in fact, a compound result of two descriptions of change, one for the better and the other for the worse, proceeding simultaneously in different parts of the kingdom.

AGRICULTURAL DISTRICTS.								
Years	Aggregate Population of the selected Districts.	Years Compared.	Number of Unions in England and Wales, from which returns were received in both the years, compared.	Number of Paupers relieved in the selected districts, in the Quarter ending Lady Day	Number of Paupers to every 10,000 of the population.	Years Compared.	Increase per 10,000 in each year, as compared with the year preceding.	Decrease per 10,000 in each year, as compared with the year preceding.
1840	2,386,863	1840 } 1841 }	577 } 577 }	207,967 219,788	870 912	1840 } 1841 }	42 (4.80 p.ct.)	—
1841	2,409,717	1841 } 1842 }	581 } 581 }	226,849 240,938	941 993	1841 } 1842 }	52 (5.52 p.ct.)	—
1842	2,432,662	1842 } 1843 }	584 } 584 }	242,053 254,666	995 1,037	1842 } 1843 }	42 (4.22 p.ct.)	—
1843	2,455,843	1843 } 1844 }	585 } 585 }	254,666 262,808	1,037 1,060	1843 } 1844 }	23 (2.21 p.ct.)	—
1844	2,479,245	1844 } 1845 }	585 } 585 }	262,808 270,207	1,060 1,079	1844 } 1845 }	19 (1.79 p.ct.)	—
1845	2,502,880	1845 } 1846 }	588 } 588 }	270,207 250,243	1,079 981	1845 } 1846 }	— (9.08 p.ct.)	98

COUNTIES.	Number of Persons relieved in the Quarter, ending <b>MICHAELMAS, 1842</b> , in 584 Unions.	Number of Persons relieved in the Quarter, ending <b>MICHAELMAS, 1843</b> , in 584 Unions.	Increase or Decrease per Cent.
Lancaster . . . . .	132,082	93,378	— 29
York, W. R. . . . .	78,902	66,260	— 16
Totals for the Manufacturing Group	201,984	159,638	
Northumberland...	20,397	22,198	+ 9
Norfolk . . . . .	29,846	30,825	+ 3
Suffolk . . . . .	29,849	31,556	+ 6
Cambridge . . . . .	14,548	13,946	— 4
Bucks . . . . .	14,400	15,096	+ 4
Herts . . . . .	14,192	14,239	— (trifling)
Berks . . . . .	15,076	15,900	+ 6
Wilts . . . . .	29,382	30,041	+ 2
Devon . . . . .	40,911	37,976	— 7
	208,601	211,777	

to the Tenth Annual Poor Law Report, I find the number of paupers relieved in the two quarters ending respectively at Michaelmas, 1842, and Michaelmas, 1843, in each of the counties comprised in the selected districts, to have been as follows (see page 80).

The following supplementary tables (see page 82) for each group of districts, display more precisely the extent and character of the movement in each, as shown at the close of the Michaelmas Quarter of 1843. The number used to express the population at the Michaelmas Quarter is, as before, the mean of those used for the Lady-Day Quarters preceding and following.

The most remarkable feature of these tables is that which exhibits the great and rapid changes of the proportion of pauperism to population in the manufacturing districts. Excepting only the last year, they appear to have constituted nearly the whole of the variations observable in a less degree when our view is extended to the whole kingdom. It is also worthy of remark that though the proportion of pauperism to population was on the increase in the agricultural districts down to the Lady-Day Quarter of 1845, such charges as occurred in its *rate* of increase agreed generally with the variations shown in the manufacturing districts. The concurrent decrease of the proportion of pauperism to population in both groups of districts, between Lady-Day, 1845, and Lady-Day 1846, and the decided preponderance of the rate of decrease in the agricultural districts, seems to point to the operation of some new cause, bearing particularly upon the population of the agricultural districts. In any extension of the view here opened it will obviously be necessary to take into account the effect of the increased demand for field labour arising from the construction of new railways; and in this direction will probably be found the true explanation of the rapid decrease of pauperism in the agricultural districts after Lady-Day, 1845.

MANUFACTURING DISTRICTS.						
YEARS.	Quarter ending.	Number of Unions.	Number of persons who received relief as Paupers.	Aggregate population of the selected districts, (computed).	Number of Paupers to every 10,000 of the population.	Decrease per 10,000 between <b>MICHAELMAS 1842</b> and <b>MICHAELMAS 1843.</b>
1842	Michaelmas.	584	201,984	2,912,520	<b>693</b>	— <b>157</b> (22·65 p. ct.)
1843	Lady Day...	585	214,425	2,943,127	728	
"	Michaelmas.	584	159,638	2,974,388	<b>536</b>	
1844	Lady Day...	585	154,616	3,005,649	511	

AGRICULTURAL DISTRICTS.						
YEARS.	Quarter ending.	Number of Unions.	Number of persons who received relief as Paupers.	Aggregate population of the selected districts, (computed.)	Number of Paupers to every 10,000 of the population.	Increase per 10,000 between <b>MICHAELMAS 1842</b> and <b>MICHAELMAS 1843.</b>
1842	Michaelmas.	584	208,601	2,444,252	<b>852</b>	+ <b>6</b> (·70pr.cent.)
1843	Lady Day...	585	254,666	2,455,843	1,037	
"	Michaelmas.	584	211,777	2,467,544	<b>858</b>	
1844	Lady Day...	585	262,808	2,479,245	1,060	

SUMMARY.						
COMPARATIVE VARIATIONS IN NUMBER OF PAUPERS PER 10,000 OF THE POPULATION.						
	In England & Wales		In the selected Manufacturing Districts		In the selected Agricultural Districts	
	Increase.	Decrease	Increase.	Decrease	Increase.	Decrease
<i>Between the Lady Day Quarters of</i>						
1840 and 1841 . . .	54	—	20	—	42	—
1841 and 1842 . . .	67	—	126	—	52	—
1842 and 1843 . . .	61	—	102	—	42	—
<i>Between the Michaelmas Quarters of</i>						
1842 and 1843 . . .	—	59	—	157	6	—
<i>Between the Lady Day Quarters of</i>						
1843 and 1844 . . .	—	55	—	217	23	—
1844 and 1845 . . .	—	16	—	78	19	—
1845 and 1846 . . .	—	95	—	53	—	98

\* The appendices to the thirteenth annual Report of the Poor Law Commissioners, with the detailed returns for 1846, not being yet (January, 1847) published, these tables cannot be carried beyond Lady-Day, 1845.

Before quitting this part of the subject it may be desirable to notice, shortly, the fluctuations, during the same period, of the amount expended annually in the relief and maintenance of the poor in England and Wales. Though (from the interference of the element of price) the amount of this expenditure cannot be received as indicating the extent of the distress relieved, an examination of its variations during the period in view may be of service, as marking the annual variations of the burden of pauperism upon the rest of the community. Accordingly, I have in the following table stated the amount expended in each year, and its proportion to the computed population of the year, with the variations, annually, in relation to the average of the whole period. And further, I have deducted from the population of each year the number returned as having received relief as paupers in the Lady-Day quarter of the same year, and have shown the proportion borne by the poor law expenditure to the population of each year, thus reduced—so as to exhibit more precisely the variations of the weight of the burden upon those who, as not being themselves paupers, had to bear it.

Years ending at Lady Day.	Amount expended in the relief and maintenance of the Poor in England and Wales.	Population (computed) of England and Wales in each year.	Proportion per head of Expenditure to Population	Excess or deficiency of the proportion in relation to the average of the 9 years	Population, not paupers, ascertained by deducting the number relieved in the Lady-day Quarter of each year from the population for the year.	Proportion per head of Expenditure to population, not paupers	Excess or deficiency of the proportion last mentioned in relation to the average of 8 years
	£		£	£			
1838	4,123,604	15,241,700	·270	—·021			
1839	4,406,907	15,461,300	·284	—·007	14,328,035	·307	—·018
1840	4,576,965	15,684,000	·291	=	14,484,471	·315	—·010
1841	4,760,929	15,906,700	·299	+·008	14,605,072	·326	+·001
1842	4,911,498	16,132,600	·304	+·013	14,705,413	·334	+·009
1843	5,208,027	16,361,600	·318	+·027	14,815,210	·351	+·026
1844	4,976,093	16,593,900	·299	+·008	15,116,339	·328	+·003
1845	5,039,703	16,829,600	·290	—·001	15,358,630	·328	+·003
1846	4,954,204	17,068,500	·290	—·001	15,737,943	·314	—·011
			Av. ·291			Av. ·325	

From the materials thus derived from the Poor Law Reports, it is to be inferred that the condition of the people of England

and Wales, generally, was not only much depressed at the commencement of the period in view, but was growing gradually worse during the whole of the four years extending from Lady-Day, 1839, to the same date in 1843; that a great and rapid improvement took place in the manufacturing districts in 1843, and was continued down to Lady-Day, 1846; that there was in the agricultural districts a gradual and continuous depression during the six years extending from Lady-Day, 1839, to Lady-Day, 1845; but that the improvement shown in the manufacturing districts after Lady-Day, 1843, was so far shared by the agricultural districts that after that period the annual rate of depression was materially diminished, until, at length, a diminution in the proportion of pauperism to population took place also in the agricultural districts, so great as to warrant the inference that the condition of the people in those districts had been very considerably and rapidly improved within the year ending at Lady-Day, 1846.

Of the condition of the people since Lady-Day, 1846, it will be observed that these returns afford us no evidence.

It is much to be regretted, that the enquiry as to the proportion of pauperism to population, during the period in question, cannot be extended beyond England and Wales.

The Act of 1838, introducing the Poor Law of this country into Ireland, has not, even yet, been carried so far into operation, as to afford the means of ascertaining the proportion referred to for even a single year. The following statement of the number of persons relieved, and the amount of the expenditure, in each year since 1840, will, when considered in connection with the extent to which pauperism is, upon other evidence, known to prevail in Ireland, abundantly prove that but a small fraction of the relief actually administered to destitute persons in that country, is brought to view in the accounts of the Poor Law Commissioners.

Referring again to the special tabular statement appended

Years ending December 31st.	Number of Unions in Operation.	Expenditure during the year.	Number of Persons relieved during the year
1840	4	£ 37,057	10,910
1841	37	110,278	31,108
1842	92	281,233	87,604
1843	106	244,374	87,898
1844	113	271,334	105,358
1845	123	316,025	114,205
1846	129*	435,001	243,933

\* The whole country is divided into 130 Unions ; so that only one was excluded from the system in 1846.

As, before the passing of the Act 8 and 9 Vic. c. 83 (in the session of 1845) there was no compulsory provision for the poor in Scotland, we have, before that time, no official account of their numbers. The Act referred to created a "Board of Supervisors for the relief of the Poor in Scotland," distinct from the Poor Law Commission of England. The first annual report of this body was made in August, 1846, and was published last year. It embraces a very full and lucid description of the arrangements for the relief of the poor under the old voluntary system, and of the proceedings of the Board in their amendment, under the Law of 1845 ; and there is appended to the report a general abstract of a mass of returns made to the Board by the "Inspectors of Poor," throughout Scotland, showing the number of paupers, and the sum expended in the relief and management of the poor, during the years ending February, 1845, and February, 1846 ; and the increase or decrease in the number of paupers, and in the sum expended in their relief during these years. The following statement, however, will show that these returns, even for the short period they cover, are not sufficiently complete in character to warrant their use in the present inquiry ; for it can scarcely be supposed that the actual proportion of pauperism to population is, as the figures here given would make it, only about one-fourth of what it is in England.

	Number of Persons on the roll on 1st February.	Sum expended in the relief and management of the Poor in the year preceding.
1845	63,070	£ 258,814
1846	69,342	295,232

If we receive the Reports of the Poor Law Commissioners as evidence of the condition of the poorest, the least provident, and the least fortunate among the people, the returns of the amount of the funds in the Savings Banks may, perhaps, be received with nearly equal confidence as evidence of the condition of the classes next above these.

Undoubtedly, both these sources of information are to be safely relied upon only under the exercise of much caution. As the number of persons relieved as paupers may have varied in obedience to other influences than those now sought to be developed, as under changes in the law, or in the means or the methods of administering it—so the amount of the funds in Savings Banks may have been, and probably have been, varied by causes wholly apart from those springing immediately from the greater or less prosperity, for the time being, of the people at large. The number of depositors in Savings Banks in the United Kingdom (about 1,100,000) is large enough, and their distribution over nearly every part of the kingdom, among the classes whose condition is now chiefly to be considered, is sufficiently general, to warrant the inference that every cause operating powerfully upon the pecuniary means of any considerable section of the community will have an effect, more or less perceptible, upon the aggregate amount of the funds they hold in deposit in successive years. It is, however, to be borne in mind, in the first place, that both the number of the depositors and the amount of the funds have, during the period now under review, been steadily increasing in continuation of the increase by which the present system of Savings Banks has altogether grown up since 1817. The total number of depositors in 1838 was 703,236; and the amount of the funds

£21,363,000. In 1845 the number of depositors was 1,063,418 and the amount of the funds £32,661,000. This shows a rate of increase, for each, about four times as great as that due to the mere increase to population. Before we can safely rely upon any given addition to these funds as evidence of an absolute increase of the pecuniary means of the depositing classes, it is therefore necessary to allow for the gradual extension of the use of Savings Banks, and of the provident habits they may be presumed to serve and strengthen. On the other hand, a diminution of the Savings Banks' funds is not necessarily to be referred to a diminution of the means of the depositors. The inducements to keep money in deposit in these Banks may have become less, or those to withhold or to withdraw it greater than before; or it may even so happen that the two conditions have occurred together. As, for instance, when the rate of interest allowed on deposits in Savings Banks was reduced, in November, 1844; and when, in the year following, speculations in railway shares offered a strong temptation to the withdrawal of money from these Banks by persons dazzled with the prospect of enormous profits.

The Savings Bank returns have one important advantage over those obtained through the Poor Law Commissioners—they extend to the whole of the United Kingdom.

The following table is framed to represent the proportion

Years.	Population of the United Kingdom (computed.)	Aggregate amount of Savings' Bank Funds, including sums invested with the Commissioners of the National Debt by Friendly Societies	Proportion per head on the population.	Relation of the annual proportions to the average of the 8 years.	Increase of the proportion in each year in relation to the one preceding.
		£	£	£ Per Cent.	
1839	26,516,000	22,425,812	·841	—·183=17·87	
1840	26,789,000	24,688,815	·920	—·104=10·15	·079
1841	27,064,000	25,781,368	·952	—·072= 7·03	·032
1842	27,342,000	26,768,580	·979	—·043= 4·19	·027
1843	27,624,000	28,786,603	1·042	+·018= 1·75	·063
1844	27,909,000	31,725,636	1·120	+·096= 9·37	·078
1845	28,196,000	32,661,924	1·158	+·134=13·08	·038
1846	28,487,000	33,694,642	1·182	+·158=15·45	·024
		Av	1·024		

of the total amount of the Savings Bank funds to the population of the United Kingdom in each year, with the annual variations in relation to the average of the whole period, and also the increase of the proportion in each year, as compared with the one preceding.

And the next exhibits the same particulars for England and Wales only.

Years.	Aggregate amount of Savings' Bank Funds in England & Wales.	Proportion per head on the Population.	Increase or decrease of the proportion in relation to the average of the 8 years.	Increase of the proportion, in each year in relation to the year preceding
	£	£	£	£
1839	19,771,541	1·278	—·163	
1840	20,725,356	1·321	—·120	·043
1841	21,563,878	1·355	—·086	·034
1842	22,312,301	1·383	—·058	·028
1843	23,900,122	1·460	+·019	·077
1844	25,712,661	1·549	+·108	·089
1845	26,548,358	1·577	+·136	·028
1846	27,434,474	1·607	+·166	·030
		Av. 1·441		

It will be observed that the aggregate amount of the funds in Savings Banks in the United Kingdom, and also in England and Wales separately, increased through the whole term more rapidly than the population. A mere comparison of the proportion of the amount of the funds to the population, therefore, does not afford any very striking confirmation of the variations observed under the operation of the Poor Law. But if we observe *the proportion added to the funds* in each year, as compared with the year preceding, a closer indication is obtained; and here we find evidence of remarkable variations. If, for instance, the pound sterling be divided into 1,000 parts, it appears that there were in the Savings Banks of the United Kingdom, in 1839, for each member of the population, a proportion amounting to 841 parts: in 1840 there were

added 79 parts, in 1841 only 32 parts were added, and in 1842 only 27 parts; but in 1843 there were 63 parts added, and in 1844, 78 parts. Thus, though the funds grew during the whole period, the rate of their growth varied considerably, becoming slower in each succeeding year after 1839 until 1842, when a change took place, and the previous rate of growth was gradually resumed. After 1844 the rate of growth again declined. But here it is to be remembered that the rate of interest allowed in Savings Banks was reduced by Parliament from November 20, 1844—the maximum rate being then fixed at 2d. per cent. per diem, or £3 0s. 10d. per cent. per annum; and that about the same time, not only was there a general revival of trade, producing many openings for the profitable investment of small amounts of capital, but also the railway speculations began to excite general attention—each of which circumstances may reasonably be supposed to have caused the withdrawal, or the withholding, of considerable sums from Savings Banks during the year or two following.

The tables given in the following pages, in which this branch of the investigation is pursued in detail, as to England and Wales, may, perhaps, be safely received as confirming the general inference already drawn from the Poor Law Returns—that the condition of the people underwent a gradually increasing depression during the four years ending in the spring of 1843. To any greater extent I confess I am not inclined to rely upon them for the present purpose.

To represent the manufacturing districts I am here compelled to take the county of Lancaster alone, as there is no separate return for the West, as distinguished from the other Ridings of York.

It is also to be observed that the amount invested directly with the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, instead of through the banks, not having relation to the division of counties, is necessarily excluded from the

inquiry, as it concerns particular districts. This amount steadily increased from £1,217,765 in 1840 to £1,806,916 in 1845.

I have also deemed it proper to carry the computation for Lancashire one year farther back, in order to bring into view a remarkable diminution of the funds in that county in the year ending November 20, 1839. This would appear to mark the first effect of the high prices of food, and the checked and disturbed state of trade in that county in 1838. But, whatever the cause of the variation, its exhibition seems to be necessary to the practical completeness of the tables, as discovering a material diminution of the funds, immediately prior to the commencement of the fluctuations more particularly regarded.

It may also be necessary to observe that in dealing with the funds of separate counties, I include in one sum those ascribed in the accounts to "Individual Depositors," to "Charitable Institutions," and to "Friendly Societies," on the ground that all are likely to be increased or diminished by causes operating generally on the prosperity of the people.

MANUFACTURING DISTRICTS.					
Years.	Aggregate of Savings' Bank Funds for the County of Lancaster.	Proportion per head on population.	Increase or decrease of the proportion in relation to the average of the 9 years.	Increase of the proportion in each year, as compared with the year preceding.	The like Decrease
	£	£	£	£	£
1838	1,553,337	·998	—·090		
1839	1,525,773	·958	—·130	—	·040
1840	1,607,951	·986	—·102	·028	—
1841	1,678,241	1·006	—·082	·020	—
1842	1,688,548	·989	—·099	—	·017
1843	1,898,837	1·087	—·001	·098	—
1844	2,150,766	1·204	+·116	·117	—
1845	2,315,170	1·267	+·179	·063	—
1846	2,440,849	1·305	+·217	·038	—
		Av. 1·088			

Here the decrease in 1839, the small increase in 1840 and 1841, and the second decrease in 1842, agree, generally,

with all the more prominent features of the preceding tables. The heaviest drawback to the growth of the funds (after 1839) seems to have occurred in the year ending November 20, 1842. A continuous increase began in 1843, and went on with greater rapidity in 1844; and this agrees to a remarkable extent with the results previously obtained as to the diminished proportion of pauperism at the same period.

The following is a similar table for the agricultural districts, comprising the returns for the nine counties before mentioned.

AGRICULTURAL DISTRICTS.					
Years.	Aggregate of Savings' Bank Funds for the nine selected counties.	Proportion per head on population.	Increase or decrease per head in relation to the average of the 8 years.	Increase of the proportion in each year, as compared with the year preceding.	The like Decrease
	£	£	£	£	
1839	3,351,801	1·417	—·196		
1840	3,518,367	1·474	—·139	·057	—
1841	3,671,456	1·523	—·090	·049	—
1842	3,829,597	1·574	—·039	·051	—
1843	4,036,687	1·642	+·029	·068	—
1844	4,259,435	1·718	+·105	·076	—
1845	4,407,965	1·761	+·148	·043	—
1846	4,541,635	1·797	+·184	·036	—
		Av. 1·613			

A correct appreciation of this table, as well as those preceding it, will probably be aided by consideration of the fact that in most districts, and in the agricultural districts in particular, the depositors are principally either persons rather in the middle than in the lower ranks of life, or servants and others in the employment of families whose domestic arrangements are not immediately or extensively affected by such a degree of general depression even as that which appears to have prevailed between 1839 and 1843. Hence, probably, both the higher proportion (in the agricultural districts) of the funds to the population, and the comparatively steady growth

of the aggregate amount of the funds from year to year. Though, however, the fluctuations observed lie within much narrower limits in the agricultural than in the manufacturing districts, it will be observed that they mark the occurrence of changes of a similar character at about the same periods. If we take the five years 1840 to 1844 inclusive, we find the years of least addition to the funds were 1841 and 1842, and that 1843 and 1844 show a considerable increase as compared with any of the previous years.

Within the last few days (15th of February) there has been published a return to an order of the House of Commons containing a full abstract of the accounts of the "Manchester and Salford" Savings Bank, in each year from 1818 to 1847 inclusive. Availing myself of the information thus afforded, I have computed the population of Manchester and Salford and the suburbs (using, throughout, the local limits of 1831) by the method before described, and comparing it with the annual variations of the Savings Bank funds have stated the results in the following table:—

MANCHESTER AND SALFORD BANK FOR SAVINGS, IN RELATION TO THE POPULATION OF MANCHESTER, SALFORD, AND THE SUBURBS.					
Annual Account made up to 20th Nov.	Computed Population.	Amount standing to the credit of Depositors.	Proportion per head on the Population.	Relation of the Annual Proportion to the average of the ten years.	Increase or decrease of the proportion per head in each year in relation to the one next preceding.
		£	£	£ per cent.	£
1838	269,400	331,759	1·231	—·254=17·10	
1839	278,300	331,729	1·191	—·294=19·79	—·040
1840	287,400	366,423	1·274	—·211=14·20	+·083
1841	296,800	397,592	1·339	—·146= 9·83	+·065
1842	306,500	416,283	1·357	—·138= 9·29	+·018
1843	316,700	488,824	1·543	+·058= 3·90	+·186
1844	327,100	568,313	1·737	+·252=16·96	+·294
1845	337,800	599,186	1·773	+·288=19·39	+·036
1846	349,000	629,381	1·803	+·318=21·41	+0·30
1847	360,500	580,915	1·611	+·126= 8·44	—·192
			Av. 1·485		

It will be observed that the variations in the proportion of the funds to the population are much wider than those shown in any of the tables previously given. These variations may be compared, thus:—

PROPORTIONS OF SAVINGS' BANK FUNDS TO POPULATION DURING THE EIGHT YEARS 1839—46.			
	Highest.	Lowest.	Variation.
	£	£	£
United Kingdom .....	1·182	·841	·341
England and Wales .....	1·607	1·278	·329
„ Manufacturing Districts .....	1·305	·958	·347
„ Agricultural „ .....	1·797	1·417	·380
Manchester and Salford .....	1·803	1·191	·612

Confining our view to the eight years 1839–46, we find that the lowest proportion occurred in the first year, and the highest in the last, that when groups of districts are compared, the agricultural exhibit the highest proportion throughout, that in the United Kingdom, in England and Wales, and in the manufacturing and agricultural districts of England and Wales respectively, the variation between 1839 and 1846 was nearly the same, showing an increase of about 7s. per head on the general population; but that in Manchester and Salford the variation during the whole period was nearly twice as great as is shown in any of the instances previously examined. And if the table relating to the latter be regarded separately, it will be observed to afford evidence of fluctuations, both in the amount of the funds and in the rate of their growth, of a very remarkable character. In particular I would draw attention to the last column, and to the absolute decrease of the proportion of the funds to the population in 1839 and in 1847 as compared with the years immediately preceding.

Among the most valuable of the statistical records which have recently been made available in such investigations as the present there is another, the Registry of Births, Deaths, and

Marriages, which, though indicating changes in the condition of society of a description differing widely from those already considered, may reasonably be expected to correct or confirm in some degree conclusions based upon the fluctuating proportions of pauperism and Savings Bank funds to population. I have made no attempt to use the records of births or of deaths. It is extremely probable that, were it possible to eliminate all that is due to every other cause, we should find the varying numbers of both births and deaths, especially over periods longer than that we are now dealing with, strikingly indicative of corresponding changes in the pecuniary condition of the people; but in the present state of the materials upon which any such investigation must be based I have deemed it hopeless to attempt the needful preliminary operation. In the registry of marriages, however, the disturbing influences are comparatively few. Each such event records an act of the most deliberate kind, to which two grown persons, at least, are consenting parties; and also an act which in a great majority of cases is liable to be hastened or postponed by the favourable or unfavourable condition of the pecuniary affairs of those immediately concerned. I have, therefore, extracted from the last Annual Report of the Registrar-General the figures necessary for the formation of the following table, which exhibits the proportionate number of marriages annually to every 100,000 males living; first in England and Wales, and then in each of the groups of districts before selected to represent the manufacturing and agricultural portions of the kingdom.

MARRIAGES ANNUALLY TO 100,000 MALES LIVING.						
	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
In England & Wales	1,625	1,597	1,574	1,506	1,549	1,633
In the selected Manufacturing Districts.	1,783	1,702	1,678	1,545	1,721	1,914
In the selected Agricultural Districts	1,464	1,448	1,443	1,400	1,385	1,419

Or, to make the fluctuations indicated by these numbers more distinctly apparent, they may be stated thus :—

Comparing	In England and Wales.		In the selected Manufacturing Districts.		In the selected Agricultural Districts.	
	Inc.	Dec.	Inc.	Dec.	Inc.	Dec.
1839 with 1840 .....	—	28	—	31	—	16
1840 with 1841 .....	—	23	—	24	—	5
1841 with 1842 .....	—	68	—	133	—	43
1842 with 1843 .....	43	—	176	—	—	15
1843 with 1844 .....	84	—	193	—	34	—

If the last table be compared with that previously given, showing the comparative variations of the amount of pauperism in the corresponding years (at page 10) a very striking coincidence will be observed throughout. Indeed, it is not easy to conceive indications of the same general changes in the condition of the people, drawn from sources so widely separated, more strongly and directly confirmatory of each other.

As the only other test, of a character sufficiently general to be relied upon for the present purpose, resting upon official records, I may refer to the Reports of the Emigration Commissioners. It appears that the total number of persons who emigrated from ports in the United Kingdom, under their supervision, was in each of the years under review as follows :—

In 1839 .....	62,207	In 1843 .....	57,212
1840 .....	90,743	1844 .....	70,686
1841 .....	118,592	1845 .....	93,501
1842 .....	128,344	1846 .....	129,851
Average .....	93,894		

Here the gradual increase of the number of emigrants during the first four years seems to accord with all the results previously obtained ; so also does the sudden decrease in 1843 :

but the gradual increase during the next three years, with the large number in 1846, seem to require further explanation. The decrease in 1843, independently of its agreement with previous results is a repetition of what the records of previous years proves to be common. The number of emigrants seems invariably to fall off, considerably, in the year after it reaches any extraordinary height. The number in 1844 is considerably below the average of the eight years; and even that of 1845 scarcely reaches the average. In both the last-mentioned years, and more particularly in 1846, an allowance is to be made for the effect of the potato disease, particularly in Ireland, whence, chiefly, the emigration of each of these years is stated to have taken place.

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There is also another class of returns of a general description, and which as to the commercial classes are in some degree analogous to those of the Poor Law—I mean the returns of the number of bankrupts, annually and monthly, and their occupations. I have examined these with a desire to avail myself of their aid; but, though I find it would be easy to derive from them an apparent confirmation of the inferences deduced from other materials, I also find that the operation of this test has been so much interfered with, in the first place by changes in the law, and in the next by the prevalence of the practice of avoiding bankruptcy by private arrangements with creditors, that whatever were the results of its application, I should feel compelled to reject them for want of confidence in their origin.

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From the sources of information thus appealed to, we may gather indications of a gradual decline in the prosperity of the people of the United Kingdom during the four years extending from the spring of 1839 to the spring of 1843; and of a gradual elevation of their condition from the last-mentioned date to

about the autumn of 1846, beyond which period the materials available do not enable us to extend our view; except in the instance of the return from the Manchester and Salford Savings Bank, and there we find evidence strongly confirmatory of the reports current during the last eighteen months of severe depression in the principal manufacturing districts.

The remarkable difference between the variations observed in the conditions of the manufacturing and the agricultural districts of England and Wales, however, would seem to indicate the operation, during this period, either of different influences in different parts of the kingdom, or of the same (or similar) influences upon social conditions differing so far as to cause a wide divergence in the results.

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I now pass to the second division of the subject, with the purpose of developing "the connection (if any) between the changes observed in the condition of the people during the eight years, 1839-47, and the variations occurring during the same period in the prices of the most necessary articles of food." And here a word or two may be requisite to define more precisely the scope of my present purpose. I should not have undertaken the labour of preparing this paper, had I not conceived the hope of tracing, by a strictly statistical method, some of the principal causes of the changes already described, to concurrent fluctuations in the prices of food. Aware, however, of the tendency of the exclusive contemplation of any particular set of causes to warp the judgment in its estimate of their comparative influence, and not hoping entirely to escape this source of error, I desire to place the results of my labours in such a form as will best enable those who may think fit to examine, to use, or to add to them, to test the validity of every inference I may venture to draw.

I have deemed it proper, therefore, to keep this second division of the paper so far distinct from the first, that each may have a significance of its own—independently of any it may derive from its connection with the other.

The most necessary articles of food in the United Kingdom—those the consumption of which is most general among all classes of the people, and which all but the very poorest can least dispense with—are, fortunately, those also, the prices of which are to be ascertained most readily and accurately. I allude, of course, to the six descriptions of grain and pulse (wheat, barley, oats, rye, beans and peas), of which the average prices, weekly and annually, in this country, have now been recorded regularly for a long series of years. For about the first half of the period under review, these averages were ascertained by taking an account, weekly, of every sale made in each of 150 of the principal corn markets in England. About June, 1842, the number of markets thus inspected was extended to 290. In other respects the method of taking the averages has, I believe, remained unaltered during the period in view. The official method of computation is so far perfect that, if accurately worked out, it may be held to give the true average weekly price of all the sales actually inspected. And these would appear to include, as to wheat, about one-third of the entire quantity grown and consumed in England and Wales. If it be liable to any objection, it is in reference to the *annual* average, which is made up simply from the averages of the fifty-two weeks in each year from January to December, without any reference to the *quantities* sold under each of the weekly averages. In most years the inequalities of the weekly sales, at different prices, so nearly correct each other, that a strict reference to them would probably not alter the annual result to any material extent. But the method being defective, the accuracy of the average, if it be accurate, is merely accidental, and it so happens that in the last year (1847), the sales having been very unequally distributed,

the usual method of computation gives an average varying materially from the true one—the former giving 69s. 9d., and the latter only 68s. as the annual average price. It might also be worthy of consideration whether, if the needful labour for obtaining an accurate annual average of the prices of British grain is to be undertaken officially, it might not be better applied (possibly in connection with a system of agricultural statistics) to a period more nearly coinciding with that in which each crop of grain is grown and consumed—or to the *harvest* year, rather than to the astronomical year. It is true that the former, if fixed by law, might frequently, under the variations of the seasons, vary a week or two from an exact coincidence with the gathering of the crops; but the latter involves the constant anomaly of including some thirty-four or thirty-five weeks covered by one harvest, and seventeen or eighteen covered by the next.

In the first of the two following tables, I have used the annual average prices of grain as obtained officially, for the astronomical years, and in the second, the annual averages of the fifty-two weeks following the first week in September. There may be a difference of opinion as to the period at which the harvest year should be deemed to commence, when the computation extends over a series of years. In the last volume of Mr. Tooke's "*History of Prices*," the harvest year is assumed to run from the first week in August as to the effect of each harvest upon *prices*, and from the first week in September as to the actual supply of grain. I have here taken the beginning of September instead of the beginning of August, because I am inclined to think that either would very nearly answer the purpose; and the two computations may afford some ground for the discussion of their relative merits. In both cases the quantity sold at each weekly average price are disregarded, and the distribution of the sales of home-grown wheat having been still more irregular during the year extending from September, 1846, to September, 1847, than in

the year from January to December, 1847, the deviation of the average stated, from that which would be obtained by a strict regard to the quantities sold at different prices, is still greater in the last line of the second table, than in that of the first. Thus, as has been said, if the quantity sold in each week be taken into account, the official average price of wheat for the year 1847, will be reduced from 69s. 9d. to 68s. And in the harvest year, if regard be had only to the unequal distribution of the sales over the *quarters* of the year, so much greater were the inequalities that the annual average will be reduced from 70s. 2d. to about 64s. 6d. It will be remembered that these averages include only grain of home growth. The quantities sold are, however, sold in competition with supplies of foreign grain; and if these were taken into the account, they would render the quantities sold in each week much more nearly alike. Though, therefore, the official annual averages are defective for the purpose of ascertaining the price obtained by the British grower for his grain, they are, perhaps, not far from accurate as indications of the price paid by the people for all the grain consumed. And as it is in this point of view, chiefly, that I would now regard them, I have not disturbed the official average, even for the last year; and in taking the averages of the harvest years, have adhered to the same method. The use of these averages with reference to the whole of the United Kingdom, though not strictly correct, is in accordance with the use made of them under the Corn Laws, to serve which, only, they were instituted: the duties being levied by the scale they govern in every port in the United Kingdom. Nor does there appear to be, in fact, any strong practical objection to their being regarded as the prices of the United Kingdom, as much as of England and Wales.

It will be observed that in the latter table—that which may be regarded as marking most nearly the fluctuations of price connected with the varying yield of the grain crops in each year—both wheat and the five other descriptions of grain taken

collectively were unusually high in price at the beginning of

<i>Average prices of grain—official—in astronomical years.</i>									
Years.	Wheat.	Excess or deficiency of the annual average price of wheat, as compared with the average of the whole period.	Barley.	Oats.	Rye.	Beans.	Peas.	Collective average of the prices of the five before-named descriptions of grain, besides wheat.	Excess or deficiency of the annual collective average of such prices, as compared with the average of the whole period.
	per qr. £.	£	per qr. £.	per qr. £.	per qr. £.	per qr. £.	per qr. £.	£.	£.
1839	3·533	+·561	1·975	1·395	2·1	2·062	2·058	1·918	+·200
1840	3·316	+·344	1·821	1·283	1·85	2·171	2·121	1·849	+·131
1841	3·216	+·244	1·641	1·121	1·837	1·991	2·017	1·721	+·003
1842	2·862	—·110	1·375	·962	1·65	1·645	1·621	1·450	—·268
1843	2·504	—·468	1·475	·916	1·529	1·554	1·458	1·392	—·326
1844	2·562	—·410	1·683	1·029	1·695	1·671	1·721	1·559	—·159
1845	2·541	—·431	1·583	1·125	1·625	1·945	1·933	1·642	—·076
1846	2·733	—·239	1·633	1·183	1·75	1·95	1·95	1·693	—·025
1847	3·487	+·515	2·208	1·433	2·450	2·525	2·571	2·237	+·519
	Av. 2·972		1·710	1·160	1·831	1·946	1·939	Av. 1·718	

<i>Average prices of grain—determined by the official method—in the HARVEST YEARS, beginning with the first week in September.</i>									
Years.	Wheat.	Excess or deficiency of the annual average price of wheat, as compared with the average of the whole period.	Barley.	Oats.	Rye.	Beans.	Peas.	Collective average of the prices of the five before-named descriptions of grain, besides wheat.	Excess or deficiency of the annual collective average of such prices, as compared with the average of the whole period.
	per Qr. £	per Qr. £	per Qr. £	pr. Qr. £	pr. Qr. £	pr. Qr. £	pr. Qr. £	per Qr. £	per Qr. £
1839-40	3·416	+·496	1·962	1·316	1·883	2·183	2·137	1·896	+·194
1840-41	3·179	+·259	1·658	1·135	1·771	2·05	2·046	1·730	+·028
1841-42	3·116	+·196	1·475	1·037	1·821	1·771	1·854	1·591	—·111
1842-43	2·529	—·391	1·412	·912	1·541	1·491	1·575	1·386	—·316
1843-44	2·633	—·287	1·6	·987	1·616	1·629	1·646	1·495	—·207
1844-45	2·366	—·554	1·629	1·071	1·641	1·866	1·8	1·601	—·101
1845-46	2·7	—·220	1·508	1·150	1·675	1·95	1·866	1·629	—·073
1846-47	3·421	+·501	2·308	1·487	2·541	2·533	2·6	2·293	+·591
	Av. 2·920		1·691	1·137	1·811	1·929	1·940	Av. 1·702	

the period in view, and fell gradually till the harvest year

1842-43, when both reached a minimum. Wheat rose in 1843-44, but in 1844-45 fell again even lower than the year but one before; while after 1842-43 all the other descriptions of grain rose in price somewhat steadily till the harvest of 1846; and, finally, in the harvest year 1846-47 rose, together with wheat, to an extraordinary height. In particular it will be observed that the price of wheat was in each year down to the commencement of the harvest year 1842-43, considerably above the average of the whole period, even elevated as that average is by the very high prices of the last year.

A mere statement of the average prices of grain during any given series of years affords, however, a very inadequate impression of the effect of the variations exhibited upon the condition of the people, unless accompanied by a statement of the quantities of *foreign grain* imported and consumed at these prices. I have, therefore, collected into the next table

*Grain entered for Home Consumption.*

Years.	Wheat and Wheatflour	Barley.	Oats.	Rye.	Beans.	Peas.	Maize.
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.
1837	244,272	332,276	19,555	47,184	109,076	87,615	....
1838	1,848,475	8,192	11,004	2,517	54,240	11,618	....
1839	2,711,273	594,301	855,448	152,582	123,597	170,270	....
1840	2,401,436	619,801	504,945	1,298	129,517	153,489	....
1841	2,647,808	222,837	20,416	518	267,697	132,857	....
1842	2,989,708	49,520	280,600	28,502	42,737	80,000	....
1843	990,523	223,209	40,820	2,718	45,520	45,014	....
1844	1,025,887	1,024,322	259,135	28,716	225,260	122,548	38,711
1845	315,015	397,655	582,909	15	197,030	79,605	42,285
1846	2,963,000	400,443	772,554	1,636	209,874	181,800	720,580
*1847	4,458,500	772,349	1,706,780	68,817	443,719	157,245	3,614,637

\* The quantities for 1847 are those *imported*—no distinction as to the entry for consumption appearing in the official accounts while the ports are open.

a statement of the quantities of each of the six descriptions of grain before mentioned imported into the United Kingdom and entered for consumption during each of the eleven years ending the 5th of January, 1848. The statement is carried back a year or two in order the better to mark the unusual extent of the importations in the earlier part of the period

now under consideration. The additional column for maize is rendered necessary by the newly-acquired importance of this grain in the importations of the last two years.

And in the two tables next following (see p. 104) will be found computed the cost of the quantities of the three principal descriptions of grain (wheat, barley, and oats) thus entered for consumption in each year at the official average price of the year, with the annual proportion per head on the population of the aggregate cost.

If attention be given particularly to the eight years now under consideration, it will be observed that the apparent outlay for foreign grain to make good the deficiency of our own crops was by much the heaviest in the four consecutive years from 1839 to 1842 inclusive. We have here very distinctly marked the effect of the four deficient harvests of 1838-39-40 and 41. The apparent *average* amount expended annually in the purchase of foreign wheat, barley, and oats only, in the four years (1839-42) was £9,851,000. In the three years next following the amount similarly expended was reduced to an average considerably less than one-third of this sum, having been only £3,187,000. Again, the amount of the burden from this source, if distributed equally over the computed population of each year, gives an average tax per head during each of the four years 1839-42 of £·366 (about 7s. 4d.); or upon each family of five persons, rich and poor, throughout the kingdom, about 36s. 8d. per annum. In the three years next following, 1843-44-45, the burden, measured in the same way, was reduced to an annual average of about £·114 (about 2s. 3½d.) per head, or not quite 11s. 6d. per annum on each family.

It would thus appear, that during the four years 1839-42 there was, as an immediate result of the deficient home supply of wheat, barley, and oats, only, a deduction made from the aggregate income of the population (to be paid to foreigners to make good in some degree the deficiency of the home supply)

*Cost of the Grain imported in the following years, at the average price of the astronomical year, in England and Wales.*

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Wheat	681,922	5,968,601	9,579,730	7,964,761	8,517,115
Barley	503,951	12,897	1,173,913	1,128,553	365,822
Oats	22,568	12,144	1,108,146	648,012	22,900
	1,208,441	5,993,702	11,861,789	9,741,326	8,905,837

1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	1847
£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
8,557,638	2,480,807	2,628,834	800,662	8,098,866	15,549,000
68,090	329,233	1,724,275	631,618	654,056	1,705,603
270,200	37,410	274,250	655,772	914,188	2,446,384
8,895,928	2,847,450	4,627,359	2,088,052	9,667,110	19,700,987
Add the cost of maize imported in 1846-7, (before which period it was imported only in small quantities,) say at 40s. per quarter .....				1,441,000	7,229,274
				£11,108,110	26,930,261

Years.	Total cost of the Wheat, Barley, and Oats entered for consumption, at the average price of the year.	Proportion per head on Population of such cost.	Excess or deficiency, of proportion in relation to the average of the eleven years.
	£	£	£
1837	1,208,441	·046	—·263
1838	5,993,702	·228	—·081
1839	11,861,789	·447	+·138
1840	9,741,326	·363	+·054
1841	8,905,837	·329	+·020
1842	8,895,928	·325	+·016
1843	2,847,450	·103	—·206
1844	4,627,359	·165	—·144
1845	2,088,052	·074	—·235
1846	11,108,110*	·389	+·080
1847	26,930,261*	·935	+·626
Av. ·309			

\* It will be noticed that these sums so far vary from the description at the head of the column, that they include the cost of the *maize* entered for consumption in 1846-7.

of nearly £10,000,000 sterling per annum; and that in the three years 1843-45 the deduction made on the same score but little exceeded £3,000,000 per annum.

The effect of the enormous expenditure of the last year falls, in great part, beyond the period in view.

The results, in relation to the aggregate profit of our *foreign trade*, may be estimated from the following statement of the total (declared) value of the British and Irish produce exported from the United Kingdom in each year, as compared with the concurrent outlay upon foreign grain of the three descriptions referred to, as estimated above. For the purpose of bringing the computation to a more practical issue, I have assumed the average amount of profit returned, one year with another, upon British produce exported, to be 10 per cent. The precise accuracy of this estimate is not, it will be observed, of much importance in relation to the present purpose—that being not so much to ascertain the actual proportion of our annual outlay on foreign grain to the profits of our foreign trade, as to exhibit the importance of large variations in the former, in relation to any reasonable estimate of the amount of the latter.

Years.	Declared value of British and Irish produce exported.	Estimated profit thereon, at 10 per cent.	Cost of Foreign and Colonial Wheat, Barley, and Oats entered for consumption in each year, estimated as before described.
	£	£	£
1837	42,070,744	4,207,000	1,208,441
1838	50,060,970	5,006,000	5,993,702
1839	53,233,580	5,323,000	11,861,789
1840	51,406,430	5,140,000	9,741,326
1841	51,634,623	5,163,000	8,905,837
1842	47,381,023	4,738,000	8,895,928
1843	52,279,709	5,227,000	2,847,450
1844	58,854,292	5,885,000	4,627,359
1845	60,111,081	6,011,000	2,088,052
1846	57,786,000	5,778,000	11,108,110

Thus, assuming that the average rate of profit is correctly taken, the total profit upon exports of British produce during

the four years 1839-42 was about £20,364,000; while the apparent cost of the foreign wheat, barley, and oats entered for consumption during the same four years was £39,404,000, showing an excess in the outlay upon grain of nearly £19,000,000 sterling. In the three years 1843-45 the result of the comparison is reversed: the profits upon British exports having apparently been in those years £17,123,000; while the cost of the foreign grain of the same descriptions consumed in this country was only £9,562,000, showing an excess of profits of about £7,560,000. I deem it proper, however, again to observe that this comparison is introduced only in the character of an illustration. Both the amounts compared are estimated, and the method and grounds of the estimate are, in each case, to be taken carefully into account before the result can be safely applied to any practical purpose.

If we regard the probable effect of the prices of grain, as already stated, upon the *home trade*, the apparent results will be found very similar. Attempts have been made at various times to estimate the actual quantity of each of the principal descriptions of grain annually consumed in this country; and some of these rest upon what may fairly be deemed high authority. I desired, for the sake of rendering the present paper more complete upon a point so important in reference to its principal purpose, to avail myself of the aid afforded by these estimates; but I find them to rest upon data confessedly so imperfect, that I think it better, in the present stage of the investigation, to exclude the element of quantity, and rest upon the variations of price, so much better ascertained, and already stated. Upon this point, therefore, I shall only refer to the variations exhibited in the tables already given. If these be compared with the results, previously stated, of the analysis of the returns of pauperism, Savings Bank funds, marriages, &c., it will be observed that the years of high prices were also the years in which pauperism was increasing, and Savings Bank funds decreasing (in their rate of accumulation),

marriages diminished in number, and the number of emigrants augmented. The period of marked relief from the depression of 1839-40-41-42—which has already been fixed, with some degree of certainty, at the spring of 1843—will be found to follow immediately upon the remarkable fall in the price of corn brought by the harvest of 1842: while the very high prices prevailing from the time at which the ascertained failure of the potato crop of 1846 brought an enormously increased demand to bear upon the supply from the grain harvest of that year, will be found to coincide as nearly with the period at which the general depression now prevailing began to be substituted for the state of prosperity which is shown to have prevailed from the summer of 1843 down to the autumn of 1846.

The ordinary descriptions of grain and pulse are not, however, the only articles entering largely into the food of the people the prices of which varied considerably during the period in view. As those most extensively used, and therefore the most important to the present purpose, I have selected for examination the prices of *beef, mutton, tea, sugar, and tobacco*.

In dealing with these we can derive no aid from official computations, except as to sugar; the average prices of British colonial sugar (unrefined) in the London market having for a long period been computed weekly by an officer of the Grocer's Company, and published in the *London Gazette*. It is a question of some moment, as regards the bearing of the results upon the present enquiry, how the average annual prices of the four remaining articles may be most correctly ascertained. As to beef and mutton, I have, for all but the last two years, relied upon the authority of accounts made up annually at the Board of Trade, from monthly returns of the prices of meat in the London markets. The rest are made up from the usual weekly prices current. The prices of tea and tobacco I have obtained by taking the current price of the most extensively used description of each, in bond, in London, at twelve equi-

distant periods in each year, and forming from these the annual averages.

It may be objected that these are all London prices, and therefore not applicable to the whole kingdom. I think this objection, if examined, will not be found material. As to sugar, tea, and tobacco, the whole supply of which is from abroad, for the small quantity of beet-root sugar produced in this country does not affect the point at issue. London is so far pre-eminent as a port of entry, that the prices in bond there may be regarded as the prices of the whole kingdom, freed from those variations which are dependent upon local influences, and therefore the only fit basis for a computation applicable to the entire community. And as to beef and mutton, internal productions, it seems obvious that the prices of the largest markets, which draw their supplies from every part of the kingdom and minister directly to the consumption of a proportion not less than one-fifteenth of the entire population—no other markets approaching to a competition with them in either respect—may be safely received, if not as perfect, yet as the best available indications of the prevailing prices of the whole kingdom.

In the following table the average annual prices of these five articles are stated together. The prices of beef and mutton are those of meat of medium quality, known as "second class," per stone of 8 lb. to sink the offal.

Years.	Tea (Congou)	Sugar (Muscovada)	Tobacco (Virginia)	Beef.	Mutton.
	per lb. s. d.	per cwt. s. d.	per lb. d.	per stone. s. d.	per stone. s. d.
1840	2 6	48 8	6½	3 6	3 10
1841	2 4	38 3	5½	3 9	3 10
1842	2 2	37 2½	4	3 7	3 10
1843	1 7½	33 11½	4	3 2½	3 5
1844	1 7¾	33 5	3½	3 1	3 6
1845	1 8	32 9	3½	3 5	3 10
1846	1 5	35 1	4	3 2	4 2
1847	1 4	28 9	4	3 11½	4 7½

It is remarkable that the variations of price here exhibited agree very nearly with those of the annual prices of grain.

The first three years (1840 to 1842 inclusive) were years of high prices. The next two (1843-44) were years of low prices. And in the last three years (1845-47) the low range of prices appears to have continued, excepting as to beef and mutton. While bread and meat, articles of home produce, fell in price from 1840 down to 1844-45, and thenceforward rose—tea, sugar, and tobacco, articles of foreign produce, appear to have fallen in price with little variation through the whole period.

If, however, we take the last table in conjunction with those showing the annual variations of the prices of grain, it becomes apparent, on a *general view*, that the years of cheapest food were 1843-44-45; and that the prices of these years were, on the whole, *very considerably* lower than those of the years preceding or following.

In particular, the coincidence of date between the reduction of the prices of *all* the articles referred to in 1843, with the indications of a rapid improvement during that year in the apparent condition of the people, is very striking. Indeed, so obvious and remarkable is the coincidence of the return of low prices of food with the return of general prosperity, and the renewal of depression when prices again rose, that the tables will upon this point be best left to speak for themselves.

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Having examined and compared the apparent variations in the condition of the bulk of the community, and in the prices of the principal articles of subsistence, and finding that they coincide sufficiently to support the inference that they were closely connected in the relation of cause and effect, it appears very desirable to ascertain, if possible, how far the quantities of these articles consumed, and the amount expended upon them, in proportion to the population, varied during the same years. Here, however, it is to be feared that the only statistical statements we possess, upon which much reliance can be

placed, are insufficient to conduct us to a safe and satisfactory conclusion.

Tea and sugar are the only articles among those already mentioned as to which we have any accounts, supposed to approximate accuracy, of the quantities annually consumed. No accounts are taken of either the production or consumption of grain or meat; and the extent to which tobacco is known or supposed to be smuggled, renders the official accounts of the quantity entered for consumption unfit to be relied upon as indications of the quantity actually consumed. But in addition to tea and sugar, there are spirits (British and foreign), and malt, which are consumed almost, if not quite, as extensively; and of the quantities of these (particularly the latter) produced and charged with duty for consumption we have statements believed to be tolerably accurate.

I have taken no account of spirits or malt in relation to their *prices*; and for this reason: The home production of spirits and beer (for which alone malt is prepared) is nearly confined to a very few hands; and the price of both to the consumers is remarkably steady. Last year, at the beginning of January, a rise of 5s. per barrel was made in the price of beer, in London, consequent upon an enormous rise in the price of barley; but no such change had occurred for upwards of seventeen years previously; and on the opening of the ports to foreign corn, about five weeks afterwards, the old prices were at once resumed. The business of distilling, in particular, is, partly from the large capital it requires, and partly from the restrictions imposed upon it in protection of the Excise duty, retained in the hands of a very small number of firms. The price of British spirits is thence much regulated by agreement among the producers; and, being thus withdrawn from the ordinary influences of an open market, exhibits (as regards the consumer) very few of those variations the examination of which might have aided the present purpose.

In the tables next following I have endeavoured to develop the annual variations of the quantities of tea, sugar, malt, and spirits consumed, in relation to the population—and also the average expenditure per head on each of the three first mentioned—taking for the cost to the consumers, as to tea and sugar respectively, the value at the average price in bond of the whole quantity consumed, added to the amount received by the Government for duty, and as to malt, the average cost of the barley, added to the amount of the duty. This does not give, in either case, the whole cost to the consumer; but the part omitted being made up of commissions, cost of carriage, &c., and trading profit, would, for each locality, bear a nearly equal proportion to the sum thus taken to represent the whole. The amount derived by the revenue from tea, sugar, and spirits, respectively, in 1847, has not yet (February 21, 1848), been published.

The table relating to tea is obviously that upon which most

<i>An Account of the quantity of TEA consumed annually per head, and also of the annual expenditure on Tea per head, with the annual variations of each in relation to the averages of the whole period of 8 years (1839-1846).</i>							
Years.	Population of the United Kingdom by computation.	Quantity of Tea entered for Home consumption	Average price per lb. in bond	Annual Consumption per head in pounds.	Excess or deficiency of annual consumption per head, in lbs., in relation to the average of the 8 years.	Annual expenditure on Tea, per head in decimal parts of a pound sterling.	Excess or deficiency of annual expenditure per head, in relation to the average of the 8 years.
		lbs.	s. d.	lbs.	lbs.	£.	£.
1839	26,516,000	35,127,000	1 10	1·321	—·103	·265	—·022
1840	26,789,000	32,252,000	2 6	1·206	—·218	·281	—·006
1841	27,064,000	36,675,000	2 4	1·351	—·073	·306	+·019
1842	27,342,000	37,355,000	2 2	1·363	—·061	·294	+·007
1843	27,624,000	40,293,000	1 7½	1·452	+·028	·273	—·014
1844	27,909,000	41,363,000	1 7¾	1·487	+·063	·281	—·006
1845	28,196,000	44,180,000	1 8	1·564	+·140	·308	+·021
1846	28,487,000	46,728,000	1 5	1·648	+·224	·295	+·012
				Av. 1·424		·287	

The quantity of tea charged with duty, as retained for home consumption, in 1847, was 46,324,298 lbs. : giving a proportion per head of the population of 1·609 lbs., or ·185 more than the average of the preceding eight years.

reliance is to be placed. Though the bonded price of tea has varied considerably, the duty (which has during the greater part of the time exceeded the price of congou), has only varied once, and that but slightly, and near the beginning of the period in view, when (15th May, 1840) the duty was increased by an addition of 5 per cent. Neither the quantity consumed, nor the expenditure, per head, affords, however, a just indica-

*An Account of the quantity of SUGAR consumed annually per head, and also of the annual expenditure on Sugar per head, with the annual variations of each, in relation to the averages of the whole period of 8 years (1839-46) \**

Years.	Population of the United Kingdom by computation.	Quantity of Sugar (unrefined) entered for Home Consumption.	Average price per cwt. in bond.	Annual consumption per head, in decimal fractions of a cwt.	Excess or deficiency of annual consumption per head in relation to the average of the 8 years.	Annual expenditure on Sugar, per head, in decimal parts of a pound sterling.	Excess or deficiency of annual expenditure on sugar, in relation to the average of the 8 years.
		Cwt.	s. d.	Cwt.	Cwt.	£	£
1839	26,516,000	3,825,000	39 4½	·144	—·007	·456	+·007
1840	26,789,000	3,594,000	48 7¾	·134	—·017	·492	+·043
1841	27,064,000	4,057,000	38 3¼	·149	—·002	·475	+·026
1842	27,342,000	3,868,000	37 2½	·141	—·010	·441	—·008
1843	27,624,000	4,028,000	33 11½	·145	—·006	·431	—·018
1844	27,909,000	4,139,000	33 5	·147	—·004	·433	—·016
1845	28,196,000	4,880,000	32 9	·172	+·021	·410	—·039
1846	28,487,000	5,227,000	35 1*	·183	+·032	·457	+·008
				Av. ·151		Av. ·449	

\* Official annual average price of Sugar not obtained. This an average of 12 weekly averages, taken monthly.

The quantity of sugar (unrefined) imported and charged with duty for home consumption, in 1847, was 5,791,783 cwt.: giving a proportion per head on the population of ·201 of a cwt., or ·050 of a cwt. *more* than the average of the preceding eight years.

tion of the condition of the people. The quantity consumed was limited, in the earlier years, as well by a high price as by a want of means to purchase; and in the latter years, both these conditions were reversed: lower prices and increased means of purchase coming together, so as to render it extremely difficult, if not impossible, to assign to each its due share in the general effect. The two years of comparative prosperity 1843-44 show a smaller expenditure, per head, on

tea, than any of the three preceding years, 1840-41-42; and though the quantity consumed is increased, the coincident fall of price claims a share in the production of that effect, and a share the extent of which we have no means of defining.

The table relating to sugar is still less satisfactory, from the greater number and variety of the corrections requisite to

*An account of the quantity of SPIRITS, British, Foreign, and Colonial, charged with duty in each year, from 1838 to 1846 inclusive, with the annual proportion, per head, on the population.*

Years.	In England.	Proportion per head on the Population in England.	In Scotland.	In Ireland.	In the United Kingdom.	Proportion per head on the Population in the United Kingdom.	Excess or deficiency of the proportion per head on Population in each year, in relation to the average of the whole period in the United Kingdom.
	Galls.	Galls.	Galls.	Galls.	Galls.	Galls.	Galls.
1838	12,136,232	·79	6,384,255	12,334,281	30,854,768	1·17	+·23
1839	12,063,926	·78	6,301,825	10,848,509	29,214,260	1·10	+·16
1840	11,804,147	·75	6,271,496	7,427,904	25,503,547	·93	—·01
1841	11,511,907	·72	6,078,719	6,515,781	24,106,407	·89	—·05
1842	11,056,096	·68	5,667,113	5,320,196	22,042,905	·80	—·14
1843	10,785,750	·65	5,665,618	5,574,921	22,026,289	·79	—·15
1844	11,368,790	·68	6,001,090	6,481,251	23,851,131	·85	—·09
1845	12,507,995	·74	6,525,489	7,638,993	26,672,477	·94	=
1846					28,360,934	·99	+·05
						Av. ·94	
The Population being estimated, as before described, to have increased in the proportion of the average from 1821 to 1841.							

The quantity of spirits charged with duty in the United Kingdom, in 1847, was 25,535,897 gallons: giving a proportion per head of the population of ·88 of a gallon, or ·06 of a gallon less than the average of the preceding eight years.

render inferences from it practically trustworthy. The column showing the expenditure per head, cannot be held to indicate the varying condition of the people, till due allowance has been made for the fluctuations of the cost to the consumer, as affected (sometimes in opposite directions) by variations of supply, and by changes of the duty. And the column showing the variations in the quantity annually entered for consump-

*An Account of the number of bushels of MALT charged with duty, the amount of the duty, and the proportion per head on the population of the quantity of Malt charged, and of its cost to the consumers, as these varied during the nine years from 1838 to 1846 inclusive.*

Years.	Malt charged in England.	Average price of Barley per bushel.	Malt charged in Scotland.	Malt charged in Ireland.	Malt charged in the United Kingdom.	Proportion per head of Malt charged in the United Kingdom.	Excess or deficiency of the proportion per head of Malt charged in the average of the 9 years.	Total cost of the Malt charged being the cost of the Barley at the average price of the year, plus the amount of the duty.	Proportion per head on the population of the total cost of the Malt.	Excess or deficiency of the proportion per head of Malt charged in relation to the average of the 9 years.
	Bushels.	s. d.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	£	£	£
1838	33,823,985	3 11	4,419,141	2,262,440	40,505,566	1'54	+14	13,110,274	·49	+·02
1839	33,826,016	4 11	4,660,373	1,744,552	39,930,941	1'49	+·09	14,962,585	·564	+·094
1840	36,653,442	4 6	4,397,304	1,406,116	42,456,862	1'58	+18	15,229,990	·568	+·098
1841	30,956,394	4 11	4,058,362	1,149,692	36,164,448	1'33	-·07	12,302,872	·45	-·02
1842	30,796,262	3 5	3,786,476	1,268,656	35,851,394	1'31	-·09	11,014,956	·40	-·07
1843	30,891,002	3 8	3,618,607	1,184,281	35,693,890	1'292	-·118	11,395,463	·41	-·06
1844	31,856,551	4 2	3,889,458	1,441,177	37,187,186	1'33	-·07	12,836,332	·45	-·02
1845	30,508,840	3 11	4,353,038	1,684,112	36,545,990	1'296	-·114	12,137,324	·43	-·05
1846	35,653,000	4 1	4,586,000	1,740,000	41,979,000	1'47	+·07	14,228,916	·49	+·02
						Av. 1'40			Av. ·47	

The quantity of malt charged with duty in the United Kingdom, in 1847, was 35,304,217 bushels: giving a proportion per head on the population of 1·22 bushels; or ·18 of a bushel less than the average of the preceding eight years.

tion requires a still further correction, for the disturbance of the ordinary operations of the trade, either by extraordinarily high prices, or by the anticipations of a change of the import duties. Thus there was, apparently, a very remarkable diminution of the quantity consumed in 1840, as compared with 1839, and an equally remarkable increase in 1841. It will be observed that the average price of 1840 was unusually high; but this alone does not account for the altered rate of consumption. Some portion of the explanation is found in a closer examination of the basis of the table. The average price given for the year 1840, is no more the price proper to the natural supply of that year (which was extremely short) than the price of wheat in any astronomical year is that proper to the produce of any particular harvest. The bulk of the sugar crop of the West Indies, the failure of which, in 1839-40, caused the high price, reaches this country early in the summer. The prices of the first four or five months of the year are ruled by the previous supply, rather than by that yet to come; and hence, if the year was made to begin in May, the price of 1840-41, would be much higher than that given for 1840, and that of 1841-42 much lower than that given for 1841. Instead of being as 48s. 7d. to 38s. 3d., they would be as 53s. to 36s., or thereabouts. So large an addition as was thus made, in the spring of 1840, to the price of sugar in bond would, of course (the cause of the addition being obviously temporary) induce dealers to bring down their stocks (bought at prices 20, 30 or 40 per cent. lower than those then prevailing) as low as possible, so as to postpone the need for further purchases. Something is also to be allowed for an increase of the practice of adulterating sugar, which, it is to be feared, invariably follows any material increase of the bonded price. When the more abundant crop of 1841 arrived, and prices fell, a portion of the new supply would be taken out of bond simply to replenish stocks in the hands of dealers; and this appearing undistinguished in the annual entries "for

consumption," would, as it does by the table, unduly enhance the apparent quantity consumed in that year. In like manner, the quantity consumed under the high prices of 1840 was greater, in fact, than as it appears in the table; as not only the quantity taken out of bond in that year, but also a large proportion of what is usually retained in stock by the dealers, was consumed. Perhaps the nearest practicable approximation to the correct figures would be made, by adding together the quantities taken in the two years, 1840 and 1841, and distributing the consumption solely by reference to the price, seeing that those two years were nearly on a par in every other circumstance apparently influencing the quantity consumed. A mere average, however, will remove the anomalous character of the figures as they now stand, thus :—

Consumption, per head.		Expenditure, per head.	
	Cwt.		£
1840.....	·134		·492
1841.....	·149		·475
	<hr/>		<hr/>
Av.	·141	Av.	·483
	<hr/>		<hr/>

It may here, however, be observed that the influences which thus operated, to an exaggerated extent, upon the sugar trade of 1840, are also to be allowed for as operating to some extent under every material variation of the price (to the dealer) of articles of general and constant demand, of which the stocks in hand are either large enough to admit, by their reduction, of a postponement of the dealers' demand, or of such a nature as to facilitate the apparent increase of quantity by adulteration.

It is also to be observed, generally, that the extension of the railway system between London and all the other principal ports of entry for foreign supplies, and every other part of the kingdom in which articles of foreign production are held in stock for immediate consumption, has so far facilitated the

gradual reduction of these stocks during the period in view, that we may safely infer that the quantities of tea and sugar, and of all similar articles, actually consumed, particularly in the latter years, were somewhat greater than the quantities taken out of bond.

As to the tables relating to the comparative consumption of malt and spirits, though the supply and the prices of both may have remained unaffected by the variations in the price of barley, the consumption of both has, undoubtedly, been much interfered with by influences apart from those the development of which is now particularly desired. It would appear that the consumption of malt was highest in the years 1838–39–40, when the price of barley was also highest; and that the consumption was lowest in the five years 1841 to 1845 inclusive, when the price of barley was lowest. But assuming that the price of barley had no influence upon the consumption of beer and spirits, it is strange that the earlier years, being years of decided depression among the principal consumers of both, should exhibit at once a large quantity of malt consumed and more paid for it. It would seem that either the quantity of malt charged in any given year is no index to the current consumption of beer and spirits, or that the profits of brewers and distillers admit of enormous variation of amount—or, finally, that the quantity of beer or spirits, or both, consumed per head, has been rapidly diminishing, from causes wholly apart from variations of the price or of the means of purchase possessed by the consumers.

At this point of the enquiry it may be advisable to take a combined view of the four tables; as in some degree explaining each other. It will be observed that those years in which the evidence previously adduced has established the existence of the greatest depression, were also the years in which (so far as the imperfect nature of the information afforded by these tables will enable us to arrive at any positive conclusion) the quantity of malt and of spirits consumed per head, and the

proportion of the incomes of the people devoted to their purchase was greatest; and the quantity of tea and sugar consumed, and the proportion of income spent upon them, was least. And if we then turn to the years of apparent prosperity, we find more tea and sugar consumed per head, and less malt and spirits; though, in these years, the means of purchasing each must have been greatly, and about equally, augmented. This inference, however, as well as every other deduced from materials so scanty as those yet available for the investigation of the present subject, is to be received with due regard to several circumstances adverted to in the following pages, as well as to those which have already been particularly referred to. *Especially*, the results of the "temperance movement" are to be kept in view.

Such is the first and perhaps the most remarkable inference to be deduced from a combined view of these four tables. If, however, we compare the annual variations of the consumption of, and apparent expenditure upon, all these articles, we find some ground for inferring that, apart from all other influences, there has been a gradual change of the habits of the consumers—a transfer of their taste and of their money from beer and spirits to tea. And here I may observe that were the present paper not already more than sufficiently extended, I might have brought forward strong confirmation of the correctness of this inference from the official accounts of the concurrent entries for consumption of coffee and cocoa.

It is not necessary to the correctness of this last inference to suppose that the habits of individuals are being changed to any great extent. If we take the annual mortality in the United Kingdom of persons between 15 and 60 years of age at 1·33 per cent., the number of persons between those ages annually removed by death, on an average of the eight years now in view, must have been about 370,000. Of those who annually come within these ages, so as to supply their places, there is, probably, a constantly increasing proportion of persons

who, in accordance with the growing intelligence, and the changing habits of the community in other respects, prefer coffee or tea to beer or spirits.

The increased consumption of malt shown in the returns for 1846 may perhaps be traced mainly to the demand of the great number of men employed in 1845 and 1846 upon railway works. Their congregation, in many instances, in temporary villages or encampments on the line, separated from their families and apart from the influences of home has, as is known through official inquiries, had an evil effect upon their habits, and, combined with hard labour in the open air, could hardly fail to lead to an increased consumption of both beer and spirits.

The table relating to spirits requires one or two special remarks. The effect of the temperance movement under Father Mathew appears to have been confined, for the most part, to the consumption of spirits in Ireland, and by Irishmen in Great Britain; I have, therefore, kept the returns for each of the three kingdoms distinct. The foreign and colonial spirits form but a small part of the whole, and are chiefly consumed by the middle and upper classes. The reduction of the import duty in 1846 is, however, to be allowed for in considering the general increase of consumption in the last year of the period.

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In regarding the variations of the prices of such articles as wheat, barley, oats, beef, mutton, tea, sugar, &c., with reference to any influence they may have had in producing, or aiding, variations in the material condition of the people, it will not be forgotten that fluctuations in the prices of such articles necessarily produce corresponding fluctuations in the prices of many others. For instance, besides the grain consumed for human food, there is a considerable demand for the consumption of cattle, for brewing and distilling, and for manufacturing purposes. Thus the feeders of horses and

other cattle, brewers and distillers, and manufacturers, become, in time of scarcity, strenuous competitors with the bulk of the community for a share of the common supply; and finally the farmers themselves must either withhold from the market, or purchase the quantity requisite for seed. If there be also, from other causes, as there was during the period now in view, a short supply and high prices of other principal articles of food, such as those already mentioned, a general increase of the cost of production, and so of the price, of every article of general use, is, obviously a natural, and all but inevitable, consequence.

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If, turning from the conclusions arrived at, or approached, through the medium of these calculations, we refer to the current of public events during the period in question, these would appear to afford no slight confirmation of the results obtained by the more abstract method.

The riots in Birmingham, in July, 1839, the outbreak at Newport, Monmouthshire, in the following November, and the similar disturbances in Sheffield, in January, 1840, seem to point significantly to the growth of an uneasy condition of the operatives in the manufacturing districts, in the summer, autumn, and winter of 1839-40. These would appear to have been the first movements of the "rebellion of the belly," consequent upon the high prices of food, and the depression of trade, following the defective harvest of 1838 and 1839.

When the distress had continued for some time, even though it became deeper, the manner of its expression was changed. It was shown in complaint, rather than in outrage. The firm, and from the first successful, repression of these outbreaks was followed by comparative quiet, though apparently under increasing suffering, for more than a year.

In the summer of 1841, public complaints of want of employment and of the high prices of food became general. Meetings of the municipal authorities took place in Man-

chester, Leeds, Bolton, Stockport, and other places in England, and in several of the manufacturing towns of Scotland, for the express purpose of making known the particulars of, and devising measures to relieve, the distress then prevailing among the labouring poor. And as the time approached for the prorogation of Parliament, in 1841, numerous public meetings were held, to petition that the effect of the import duties on corn might first be considered.

As the winter came on, and the usual suspension of farming occupations threw the agricultural labourer upon a still more scanty subsistence, incendiary fires appeared in several of the southern counties. The ensuing half-year, ending at Lady-Day, 1842, was, as has been shown, one of severe pressure upon the poors' rate in all parts of England and Wales.

Early in the summer of 1842 (May), public meetings and disturbances again took place in Lancashire and Cheshire, always in avowed connection with the general scarcity of employment, the high prices of food, and the influence attributed to the Corn Laws in the production and perpetuation of both. In the beginning of June the disturbances assumed a more alarming form in a general strike of the colliers of the Midland counties, several thousands of whom turned out and stopped the working of the pits in which others were disposed to remain at their employment. Before the middle of July (1842) all work was stopped in the iron and coal works of that part of the country and in the Staffordshire potteries. And in the first week in August all the manufacturing towns of Lancashire and the West Riding of Yorkshire, and the collieries in the West of Scotland, were included in the general stoppage.

This was the culminating point.

Thenceforward everything moved towards a change for the better. The harvest proved to be abundant, and was secured in good condition. It was also assisted in its effect upon prices by large foreign supplies, sent forward in anticipation of a continuance of the scarcity of the previous four years.

The termination of the war with China (in August, 1842) put a stop to a considerable branch of government expenditure, and substituted the prospect of a speedy reimbursement of what had been spent. It also caused a rapid fall in the prices of tea. And the re-opening of the China trade, with liberty to carry our commerce into four additional ports, led to a brisk renewal of the export trade to that country, which, during the following spring, contributed to call the factories again into active employment. Within the last few weeks of the same year (1842) came news of the successful advance of the British army on Cabul, and its safe retreat after rescuing the British prisoners and avenging the disasters of the year before. The apparent certainty of abundant supplies of food at moderate prices, and the improved aspect of our affairs abroad, tended strongly to diffuse a general feeling of confidence in the approach of more prosperous times. The funds rose, credit was extended, and the rate of discount on commercial bills of the first class fell, between August, 1842, and January, 1843, from 4 to 2 per cent.

From this time forward complaints from the manufacturing districts were gradually less and less heard.

The winter of 1842-43, however, though not a severe one, was marked by the heaviest pressure upon the poor's rates which had been felt since 1835. The following figures, taken from the reports of the Poor Law Commissioners, will afford some idea of it:—

FOR THE YEARS ENDING AT LADY-DAY.		
	Amount expended in relief and maintenance of the poor in England and Wales.	Average price of wheat per quarter.
	£	s. d.
1839	4,406,907	69 4
1840	4,576,965	68 6
1841	4,760,929	65 3
1842	4,911,498	64 0
1843	5,208,027	54 4

The continuous increase of the general burden of pauperism, down even to Lady-Day, 1843, notwithstanding so considerable a reduction during the last year in the price of grain, seems to be best explained by the extreme exhaustion of the means of the labouring classes. Though the price of food was so much reduced, their means of purchasing it would appear to have been reduced in a still greater proportion; and these were not generally replenished till the resumption of commercial activity, begun in the spring of 1843, had, towards the close of the summer, brought more or less within its influence the whole mass of the labouring population.

The general condition of the labouring classes in the latter half of 1843, during the whole of 1844-45, and down to the autumn of 1846, was commonly stated at the time to be one of full employment, with moderate prices of food, and tranquillity scarcely disturbed. The only remarkable exception is that which has already been observed upon as existing at the commencement of this period, and in the condition of the agricultural labourer.

The pressure which had fallen first upon the manufacturing was removed last from the agricultural districts.

The large influx of foreign corn in 1842 depressed the value of the home supply considerably below the point indicated by its own abundance. And though the supply, both home and foreign, was much less (in comparison with the then higher current demand) from the harvest of 1843 forward, than in the preceding year, this seems to have brought but little relief to the farmers. And the abundant harvest of 1844 again induced a strong and general feeling of depression in the agricultural districts.

In the summer and autumn of 1844 open expressions of discontent among the agricultural labourers and frequent incendiary fires in the southern counties drew the attention of the public to their condition; and in November and December of that year, when, in the metropolis and in the

chief manufacturing towns, public meetings were becoming numerous in connection with the sanitary condition of the workpeople, and the stress laid upon the necessity for commodious apartments, with sufficient supplies of good air and water and the means of healthful recreation, proved most significantly that the more pressing needs of a year or two before had, in those districts, passed away, other public meetings were elsewhere being held to devise means of raising the class of agricultural labourers from a state in which it appeared that the means of even the barest subsistence were scarcely attainable.

It has already been shown that very soon afterwards—that is to say in the spring of 1845—the condition of the agricultural districts exhibited signs of improvement in a marked diminution of the rate of increase of the distress; and it would appear that the summer of that year placed these districts in a state of prosperity nearly resembling that previously enjoyed by the manufacturing districts. How far the increased demand for labour in connection with the railway speculations of 1844 and 1845 was a cause of this change is one of those branches of the present inquiry upon which I must at present refrain from entering.

The temporary addition made to the apparent amount of the current income of the community during the speculations of 1845 was of a character which seems scarcely to call for remark beyond a mere reference to the fact. That the consumption of all articles of convenience and luxury was materially increased in that year is in some degree proved by the Customs and Excise returns, and these are, as far as I can learn, amply confirmed by the personal knowledge of those who at the time possessed adequate means of observation.

The causes which have since September, 1846, operated, through the failure of the cotton and potato crops of that year and the high prices of grain and meat, in limiting employment

in the manufacturing districts, by checking the demand for all articles but those of primary necessity, as well as the effect of the continued employment given upon railway works in keeping up the ordinary demand from one section of the labouring classes, and the aggravation of the resulting distress by severe pressure upon the money market, are, so far as they concern the present subject, too obvious and of too recent occurrence to require further exposition.

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Regarding this paper as a mere contribution towards the investigation of a subject of the highest interest to the community at large, and trusting to make it or see it made use of in aid of more extensive and minute enquiries, I have made no effort to impart to it the appearance of a completeness to which it can, in fact, have no pretension. In conclusion, however, I am desirous of drawing attention to one in particular of the leading lines of enquiry suggested by the facts stated, and which the scope of this paper will not permit me to do more than suggest.

The continuance of distress in the agricultural districts so long after that prevailing in the manufacturing districts had been succeeded by comparative prosperity, brings to view a remarkably interesting problem; and as during the preparation of this paper I have been led to regard it with much attention, I will venture to offer to those who may with better means attempt its solution by a strictly statistical method, the inference bearing upon it, which I am inclined to deduce from the materials here presented.

The matter in doubt, it will be observed, arises thus: All the evidence adduced and analysed in the preceding pages points to the conclusion that during the greater part of the period now under review the agricultural labourers, though not exposed to the same violent alternations of condition as their fellow labourers in the manufacturing towns, were suffer-

ing from influences of more enduring operation, one of the most striking results of which was, as has been seen, a constant increase of the proportionate number of paupers among them down to the Lady-Day quarter of 1845—at least a year and a half after a decided change for the better had become manifest in the manufacturing districts. One of the principal causes of this prolongation of the depression in the agricultural districts may, I conceive, be found in the fact that the rapid growth of our manufacturing system has made a migration of young persons from the agricultural to the manufacturing districts a constant and necessary operation. The rate of increase of the agricultural population having in some degree adjusted itself to the furnishing of the needful average supply, a material reduction of the demand, especially if continued over a period of four or five years, cannot but have the effect of disturbing, most injuriously to the agricultural labourer, the state of the labour market, as it bears immediately upon him. The accumulated supply of young men and women, retained to out-bid their elder relatives in the field, instead of finding their way to the factory, must in many instances become permanently fixed in the occupations of the former; and when at length the revival of trade in the towns, having first given employment to the resident population (also increased in the interval), again offers an opening to immigrants from the country, those who have been ousted in competition with younger men at home (while these had no such opening) must find themselves placed at even a greater disadvantage in any attempt to compete for town employment. Thus it would appear that the stream of migration from the country districts (continuing to flow under influences not *immediately* affected by changes in the cost of subsistence or in the current amount of employment), if once dammed back, even for a year, does not again find its level without the lapse of a considerable interval, and then only through the medium of severe depression and suffering.

Guided by these considerations, I am inclined to infer that the remarkable difference observed in the fluctuations of the proportion of pauperism to population in the agricultural and manufacturing districts (under variations in the price of food) would probably, were the comparison carried over a longer period, be explained as arising from the prevalence, in the two descriptions of districts (as affected by the same general influences), of two rates of fluctuation identical as to their causes and mode of operation, and distinguished only by *the difference of their bearing* upon the peculiar occupations and social condition of each district.

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I cannot bring this paper to a close without referring to the evidence bearing directly upon its subject to be found in several papers which have already appeared in the Journal of the Society. In particular I may mention a very valuable paper in Vol. IV. by William Neild, Esq., Mayor of Manchester, comparing accounts of *the actual income and expenditure of labouring families in Manchester and Dukinfield in 1836 and 1841*; and another in Vol. V. by Henry Ashworth, Esq., one of the directors of the Chamber of Commerce of Manchester in 1842, on the *then existing depression of trade at Bolton, showing the mode in which it affected the different classes of a manufacturing population*. These papers will be found to afford a very striking view of the extent and degree of the depression prevailing in the districts of the cotton manufacture during the first two or three years of the period brought to view in the present paper; and if taken in conjunction with it, will, I trust, supply in some degree, as to the earlier years, the deficiencies necessarily incident to the treatment of so large a subject by so feeble a hand.



SOME PARTICULARS  
OF THE  
COMMERCIAL PROGRESS  
OF THE  
COLONIAL DEPENDENCIES OF THE  
UNITED KINGDOM,  
DURING THE TWENTY YEARS,  
1827-46.

*[Read before the Statistical Society of London, 19th February, 1849.]*



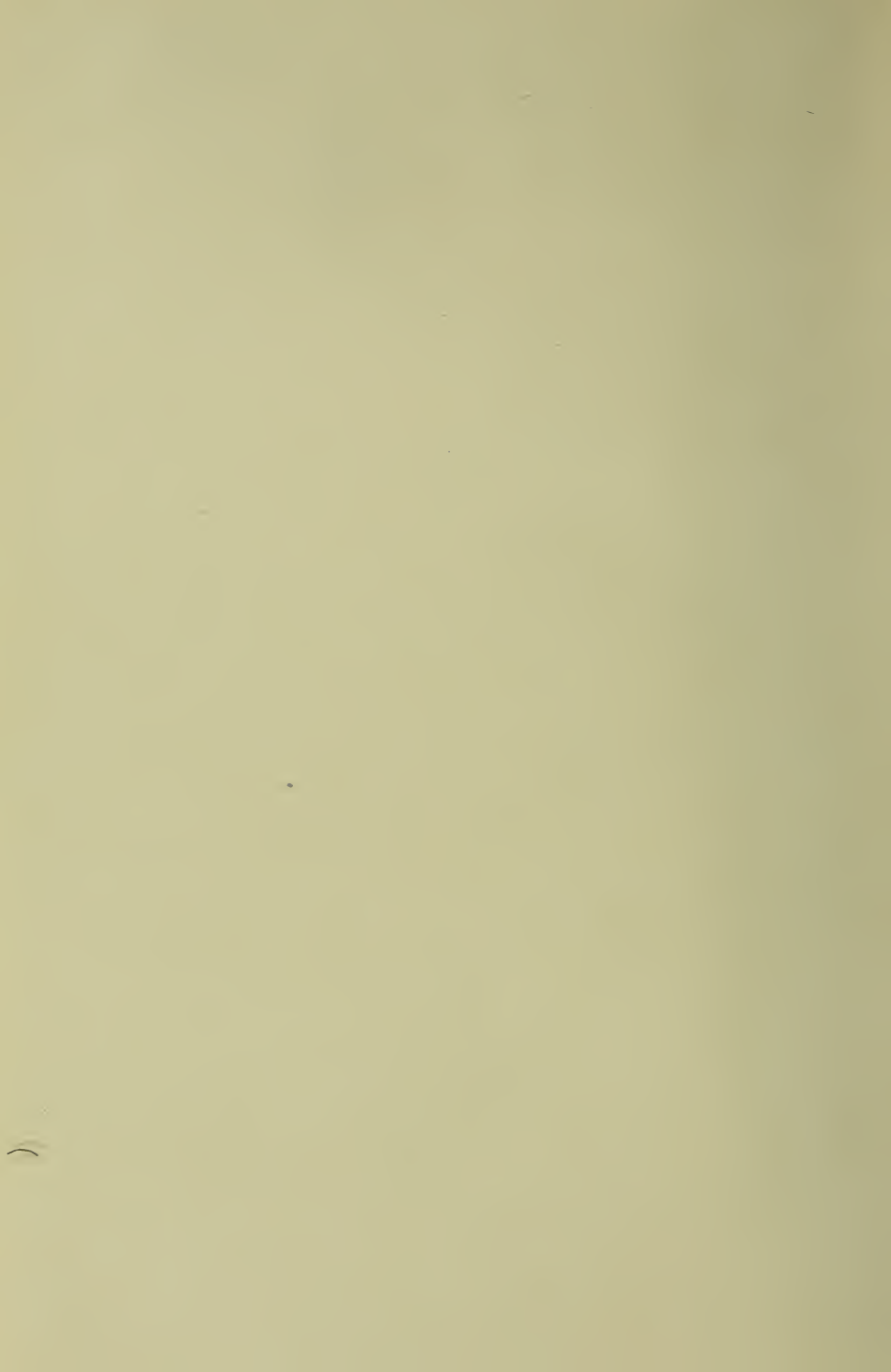
## PREFACE.

This work is statistical; not political.

The materials available for its compilation are, in many instances, imperfect; but they have been collected and collated with care; and every source of information relied upon is referred to.

J. T. D.

*Reform Club, 21st May, 1849.*



# THE COMMERCIAL COLONIES, THEIR GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION AREA, AND POPULATION GENERALLY

THE most obvious division of the British possessions abroad is that suggested by their immediate relation to the Home Government: the executive authority being exercised, as to those included in the East India Company's Charter, through the Board of Control, and as to the rest, through the Colonial Office. The present paper has reference only to those under the Colonial Office. These were, in 1826, as follows:—

IN NORTH AMERICA.	Area in sq. miles. (estimated)
Canada, Upper and Lower .....	400,000
New Brunswick .....	30,000
Nova Scotia .....	18,000
Prince Edward Island .....	2,000
Newfoundland.....	36,000
	<hr/> 486,000

These possessions stretch from the 42nd to about the 50th deg. of N. lat. The rest of British North America—the whole being estimated at 2,500,000 sq. miles—is known as the Hudson's Bay Territory.

IN THE WEST INDIES.	Area in sq. miles. (estimated)
<i>Insular</i> —The Bahamas .....	3,647
Jamaica .....	6,256
The Leeward Islands, viz.—	
Antigua .....	107
St. Kitt's.....	68
Dominica .....	not ascertained*
Nevis .....	41
The Virgin Isles.....	not ascertained†
Montserrat .....	47

\* Length 30 miles; greatest breadth 15 miles.

† Tortola, the principal British island, and containing nearly the whole of the British population, is about 12 miles long, with an average breadth of 4 miles.

The Windward Islands, viz.—	
Trinidad .....	2,020
Grenada .....	not ascertained*
St. Vincent.....	not ascertained†
St. Lucia.....	not ascertained‡
Tobago .....	897
Barbadoes .....	162
Continental—Honduras .....	not ascertained
British Guiana, viz.—	
Demerara .....	} not ascertained§
Essequibo .....	
Berbice .....	

IN AFRICA.	Area in sq. miles. (estimated)
The Settlements on the Western Coast, viz.—	
The Gold Coast	} area not settled, but estimated at 8,000
Sierra Leone ...	
Gambia .....	
The Cape of Good Hope .....	130,000
IN THE INDIAN OCEAN.	
Ceylon .....	24,700
Mauritius .....	676

## IN AUSTRALIA.

New South Wales.....	area unsettled.
Van Dieman's Land.....	27,000

And also the following military or maritime stations; which, as they cannot be said, properly, to have any commerce, are omitted from the investigation :—

Heligoland	Gibraltar	Ascension
The Bermudas	Malta	and
	St. Helena	The Falkland Islands.

In the interval between 1826 and 1846, there were added to the Australian settlements—

Western Australia, in 1829.....	} area unsettled.
South Australia, in 1834.....	
New Zealand, in 1839 .....	86,000 sq. miles.

These will be introduced as successive extensions of the

\* Length 17 miles; greatest breadth 9 miles.

† Length 17 miles; greatest breadth 10 miles.

‡ Length 35 miles; average breadth 12 miles.

§ The territory claimed by Great Britain comprises about 76,000 square miles; but the greater part of this about (64,000 square miles) is claimed by Venezuela; and a part of what is claimed by Venezuela is also claimed by Brazil. See Sir R. Schomburgk's Map, attached to his "Description of British Guiana," 1840.

Australian group of colonies. The other additions during the same interval were:—

Hong Kong, a maritime station on the coast of China, in 1842; and Natal, an offshoot of the Cape Colony, in 1844.

These do not seem to require further notice: Hong Kong, apart from its recent acquirement, being rather a maritime station than a commercial colony; and Natal, still more recently acquired, not yet affording materials even for a trustworthy estimate of its commercial character.

It will at once be observed, that these possessions, so far as they are actually occupied by Europeans, are all either small islands, or territories stretching along the coasts of large islands or continents. If there be any exceptions to this rule, they exist only where pastoral occupations, as at the Cape of Good Hope and in Australia, facilitate the profitable occupation of very large tracts of country by a small number of persons. The richest and most populous localities are, in *every* instance, those most easily approached by sea. And it will appear, on examining the nature of the commerce of these scattered communities, that they are also, generally, much more dependent upon supplies from without, than the inhabitants of any long-settled country. It seems to follow, therefore, that they are at once well adapted for commercial intercourse with the rest of the world, and peculiarly exposed to maritime invasion or control.

The geographical distribution of the whole territory may be roughly stated thus:—

	WEST OF GREENWICH.	EAST OF GREENWICH.
	Area of sq. miles.	Area in sq. miles.
<i>North of the Tropics.</i>		
The North American Colonies .....	2,500,000	—
<i>Between the Tropics.</i>		
The West Indian Colonies .....	85,000	—
The African Coast Settlements.....	8,000	—
Ceylon .....	—	24,700
Mauritius .....	—	676
About one-third of Australia .....	—	1,000,000
<i>South of the Tropics.</i>		
The Cape of Good Hope.....	—	130,000
The remaining two-thirds of Australia, New Zealand, &c. ....	—	2,100,000

It is only in the settlements between the tropics that agricultural produce enters largely into the exports. North of the tropics, the cutting of timber from uncleared lands, and the catching and curing of fish, form the bases of the exterior commerce; and south of the tropics the colonies are of a decidedly pastoral character.

An estimate of the entire population of these Colonies, at the beginning and end of the period in view (founded upon details presently to be stated as to each group) must be in some degree imperfect; but may for general purposes be stated thus :—

	1826.	1846.		
	Total.	Total.	Whites by estimate.	Whites of British birth or descent by estimate.
North American Colonies .....	966,000	1,995,000	1,995,000	1,100,000
West Indian Colonies .....	808,000	936,000	65,000	60,000
Cape of Good Hope .. .	120,000	170,000	75,000	20,000
African Coast Settlements .....	—	305,000	185	170
Mauritius .....	94,000	180,000	10,000	3,000
Ceylon .....	1,350,000	1,500,000	5,500	3,000
Australian Colonies .....	—	420,000(a)	310,000	300,000

Whence the total population of the British Colonies of the class here dealt with may be supposed to have been in round numbers, in 1826, about ..... 3,750,000

In 1846, about ..... 5,500,000

The total White population in 1846 about... 2,460,000

And the Whites of British birth or descent,  
about ..... 1,486,000

The distinctions of *sex* and *age* are perhaps more important to the character of a commercial community than those of colour and descent; and the communities here brought under

(a) Including the aborigines of New Zealand; who, alone, appear to have been brought into any distinct enumeration.

one view exhibit, as might be expected, some remarkable varieties in the distribution of both.

As to sex: In the North American group the number of males and females would appear to be nearly equal. In the West Indies, the latest censuses, if they may be relied upon, show an excess of females varying from 14 to 18 per cent. in the colonies in which the recent immigration of males has not evidently disturbed the normal proportion. In the Cape Colony there is an apparent excess of males, of about 7 per cent.; and at Ceylon a like excess of 7 or 8 per cent. In Mauritius, in 1846, the females were to the males, apparently, as about 51 to 100; in New South Wales as 66 to 100; in South Australia as 76 to 100; and in Van Dieman's Land only as 46 to 100.

As to age: The colonies receiving immigrants seem generally to have an excess of infants and persons of mature but not advanced age, nearly proportioned to the extent of the additions recently thus made to their population. But that the normal condition of populations comparatively free from the influence of either immigration or emigration is anything but uniform in this respect, and therefore that the volume and character of the stream inwards (or outwards) does not altogether determine the various deviations from those proportions at each age with which we are most familiar at home, may be inferred from the following table relative to five countries in which the manner of taking the censuses admits of a direct comparison.

	In each 10,000 of the Population. (a)		
	Under 10 Years of Age.	Over 60 Years of Age.	Total of Infants and Aged Persons
England and Wales .... (1841)	2,521	720	3,241
Ireland..... (1841)	2,845	425	3,270
Lower Canada..... (1844)	3,301	441	3,741
United States ..... (1840)	3,161	394	3,555
Jamaica ..... (1844)	2,624	687	3,311

(a) See, as to England and Wales, and Ireland, the censuses as published; as to Lower Canada, Appendix D to the 5th Vol. of the Journal of the Legislative Assembly, Session 1846; as to the United States, the official census, as published; and as to Jamaica, the Sessional Paper (Commons) No. 426, of 1845.

The comparative superiority of the condition of England and Jamaica, both in the small proportion of their ineffective population, and in the large proportion of aged persons, is remarkable; and contrasts strongly with the opposite conditions in the United States and Lower Canada. How much of the difference is due to the former being little, and the latter much, disturbed by migration, though a most interesting question, is one scarcely within the scope of the present inquiry.

### SOURCES OF INFORMATION

The figures used in the present paper have been collected partly from the Revenue Tables of the Board of Trade and the Sessional Papers of the House of Commons, and partly from the manuscript records of the Colonial Office. A few other sources of information have been relied upon occasionally; but the authority is referred to in every instance. For access to the latter the author is indebted to the permission of Earl Grey, kindly and promptly granted on representation of the use intended to be made of it. These records consist, principally of what are called the "Blue Books"—volumes of printed forms sent to each colony in blank, to be filled up, annually, with an account of the Revenue and Expenditure; with particulars of the various government establishments, civil, military, and Ecclesiastical; and with certain details touching the population, commerce, shipping, and agriculture of the colony. The earliest date in the series is 1821; but, as might be expected, the system then begun was not, for some years, brought into complete operation; and down even to a recent date the accounts received from some of the colonies, particularly with reference to their commerce, are very imperfect. This will not seem unaccountable when it is remembered that the first public acknowledgment of the value of commercial statistics to the statesman, by the formation of a Statistical

Department at the Board of Trade, was made so lately as 1832, and that the Statistical Society of London has existed only since 1834.

It is also to be observed that the original purpose of the Colonial Blue Books would appear to have been rather the formation of a current record of the Revenue and Expenditure, and of changes in the staff of the various government establishments of each colony, than the collection of materials for its commercial history. And the means adopted to obtain the required information point to the same conclusion: for though commercial accounts, as of Imports, Exports, and Shipping, were obtainable only from the officers of the Colonial Custom Houses, and these were subordinate not to the Colonial Office, but to the Treasury, it does not appear that any arrangements have ever existed for ensuring the assistance or co-operation of the officers of Customs in the preparation of the Blue Books, or that such assistance is, in fact, regularly rendered. In short, the commercial information contained in these books has hitherto (with a few exceptions) formed a comparatively small portion of their contents; and for the reasons I have stated this portion is often imperfect.

### INTEREST OF THE PRESENT INQUIRY

A comprehensive view of the subject stated in the title seems to suggest the propriety of first regarding, however cursorily, its relation to the general current of our commercial history; and in this relation, indeed, will the chief interest of the present inquiry be found.

If asked what, as a commercial people, we have been doing the last half century, besides labouring, buying, selling and accumulating, we might answer that we have been changing our methods, by getting rid of slavery and monopoly. The wisdom of what we have done in either direction is not here

in view. But it is obvious that, in working towards these ends, we have introduced great changes into the commercial relations of the Colonies to each other, and to the mother-country. During the whole of the period now particularly in view, and for some time before, the trade of the Colonies was in a state of transition. The war which terminated in 1815 had tightened the bonds of interest between the United Kingdom and all its outlying dependencies: by making them, for the time, commercial depôts and stations for the collection and equipment of our naval forces. The Colonies thus acquired a special value; and while the war lasted the general interruption of commerce caused the fetters of "the Colonial system" to be comparatively little felt. After the monopoly of war ceased, that of legislative restriction, growing more palpable and galling, rapidly became untenable. Having forbidden the introduction of new slaves into the Sugar plantations, we could scarcely continue to prohibit the feeding of those already possessed from the cheapest sources of supply. Accordingly, in 1822 the restrictions on the Colonial trade in this respect were relaxed; and further relaxations were made in 1825, (by 6 Geo. IV. c. 114), in 1833 (by 3 and 4 Will. IV. c. 59), and in 1843 (by 5 and 6 Vict. c. 49). A succinct and very clear exposition of our Colonial policy down to 1825, of the measures of relaxation then proposed, and of the motives to them, will be found in Mr. Huskisson's speech in the House of Commons, on the 21st of March in that year. See vol. ii. p. 304, of his published speeches. The following was the closing passage of the note on "Colonial Policy" appended by Mr. McCulloch to his edition of the "Wealth of Nations," published in 1828: "The late changes in the Navigation Laws amount to a complete abandonment of the old Colonial system. The Colonies are now placed in the same situation, with respect to trade, as if they formed integral parts of Great Britain. Foreign ships are allowed to bring to the Colonies the produce of their respective countries, and to take back

their produce to their own countries ; but they are not allowed to carry the produce of the Colonies between nations to which such ships do not belong." In the meantime we also prohibited altogether the use of compulsory labour in the Colonies, although in the most productive of them it had previously been deemed essential to the efficient cultivation of the soil. And at home we have, of late years, reduced, very considerably, the differential duties on importations by which we formerly gave to colonial producers a virtual monopoly of the home market. Further—a single glance at the circumstances attending these changes shows that they were intimately connected with corresponding changes in our commercial relations with the rest of the world. A period of peace unbroken among the chief maritime powers for more than 30 years (following immediately upon a general war continued almost without cessation for 22 years) has been gradually imposing new conditions upon commercial intercourse throughout the world ; and raising up to us and to our Colonies numerous rivals, not only in the production and supply of the various articles the subject of exchange, but also in the business of carrying them from market to market. As a consequence, our ancient rules of exclusion, met on every side by retaliation, have been slowly giving way to agreements to admit the shipping and goods of foreigners on terms of mutual toleration. Whatever the necessities, or the propriety, of this gradual withdrawal of legislative restriction before the pressure of commercial competition, it will at once be anticipated that the resulting state of transition, produced by causes foreign to the proper business of the merchant, and being eminently calculated to derange the ordinary course of mercantile transactions, has not been without its effect upon the trade of our Colonies. What, in each case, the effect has been, it would, perhaps, not be easy precisely to ascertain, even with the fullest command of the requisite materials. And it cannot be reasonably hoped that, upon a subject so extensive and im-

portant, the following pages will afford ground for other than very general conclusions.

## METHOD OF INQUIRY

THE chief inducement to an investigation of the commercial progress of this or any similar set of communities is obviously derived from the assumption that commerce promotes the advancement of civilisation, not only by aiding the accumulation of capital, but by producing and facilitating communication between the inhabitants of different countries, and making them habitually dependent upon each other for the supply of articles essential to subsistence, to comfort, or to enjoyment. Hence, two problems present themselves at the outset of the inquiry, which may be expressed thus:—

First.—Given, 1. The area, soil, climate, and population of a country (or, in other words, the number of persons whose wants are to be supplied, and the natural capabilities of their own section of the earth's surface to supply them), and

2. The exchangeable value, and the nature, of its exports and imports,

To determine the direction and extent of its advancement in material civilisation.

And Second,—Given, also, the changes occurring in these elements during a specified period,

To determine the rate of its progress.

The area, soil, and climate of the Colonies I have enumerated have, generally, been ascertained with some degree of accuracy. And these conditions have not been much changed—if we except the formation of the new Settlements in Australia—during the period now in view. The remaining elements—the population, and the nature and value of the imports and exports—are imperfectly known, and are much more liable to change; and therefore form the chief subjects of inquiry.

THE TABLES APPENDED: THE NATURE OF  
THEIR CONTENTS

APPENDED to this paper is a series of tables containing annual statements of four descriptions as to each colony:—\*

1 and 2. The aggregate values of the Imports and Exports.

2 and 3. The aggregate tonnage of the Shipping entered inwards and cleared outwards.

The authority for each statement is there specified; † and it will be observed that these authorities are various. It will also be seen that, when taken collectively, the statements are so far imperfect as to leave several blanks in the series. And I have to observe that the introduction of quinquennial averages, as to each description of statement, was suggested quite as much by the imperfection of most of the documents referred to, the conflicting variety of their contents, and the apparent probability that I should thus attain a nearer approximation to substantial accuracy, as by the obvious convenience of fixing the attention upon four points of comparison instead of twenty. I have also to regret that, in thus compiling a continuous statement from several sources of information, I have frequently been unable to ascertain whether statements purporting to be referable to the same definition, or standard, were really so or not: as whether the term “Imports,” when

\* The term “Colony” is used throughout (when not expressly limited by the context), with its common though scarcely correct signification, as including also the settlements more properly termed plantations.

† Inquiries of this description would hardly be undertaken *con amore* were those who undertake them not stimulated, as they proceed step by step through their labour, by the hope of discovering new relations between known facts, or of establishing some preconceived theory. Hence the very inducement to proceed may often produce partiality of view, and give a special direction to every modification of the original data introduced into the process of reasoning; and as few, if any, can hope to be quite free from the consequent tendency to mar the materials they bring together for every purpose but their own, I conceive it to be in some degree a duty to bring to view, not only all the original data, but the sources whence they have been obtained, even though to the cost of my own labour I add some risk of tediousness to the reader.

applied to an aggregate amount, had the same meaning, even in the same port, in successive years.

The returns of shipping inwards and outwards are introduced as being, with due allowance for the peculiar circumstances of each colony, in some degree corroborative, or corrective, of the returns of imports and exports. They appear to be, on the whole, more likely to be accurate. The tonnage of a ship is not, usually, difficult to ascertain. It is a matter of interest to the authorities of every port in which harbour dues, &c., are incurred; and, in connection with the receipt and appropriation of such dues, it is almost sure to be recorded at every port a vessel enters for the purposes of trade. But the value of goods imported, or exported, is not necessarily made known at the ports they pass through. Any declaration of their value unconnected with the levy of an *ad valorem* duty, even if it be regularly enforced by law, is likely to be often made without care, to say the least; and must, sometimes, whatever care be used, be incorrect: as goods, especially colonial produce, must occasionally be valued, before shipment from the country of production, very much at random. Fortunately, the results admit, in this instance, of a corrective comparison with the home accounts, as to at least the principal exports of the Colonies, and also as to their importations of manufactured articles: the former having hitherto been, with few exceptions, sent to, and the latter obtained from, the United Kingdom. The accounts of the shipping belonging to the Colonies (introduced in the sequel) have a further significance, in relation to the fact that the *highways* of a coast territory often lie mainly on the water.

An attentive reader of this paper will be sure to ask whether the returns of shipping, inwards and outwards, include or exclude the coasting trade of the Colonies. I have endeavoured to exclude the coasting trade; but I am not sure that the state of the accounts has always permitted me to distinguish it. The reader may, however, differ with me as to what should be

considered coasting trade ; and as I am not aware that the distinction has ever been drawn with reference to such an investigation as the present, I will state the rule by which I have been guided. Broadly, the foreign and the coasting trade may be distinguished at once by reference to the different purposes they serve : that of home distribution, and that of foreign exchange. The coasting trade is a substitute for roads and bridges ; and is gradually superseded to some extent by the improvement of these. But the political distinction contravenes this. The sea trade between France and Holland competes with the trade by land, yet is deemed foreign trade ; and the trade between England and Ireland is classed as a coasting trade, though it increases instead of diminishing by the improvement of land communication in the two countries. For the present purpose I conceive that the more natural distinction should be preferred ; and that all communication by sea which is not competed with by land should be classed together as foreign trade, or, more properly, as that maritime commerce, the extent whereof, between any given country and the rest of the world generally, best indicates the extent of its commerce. Such a test would certainly be all but inapplicable to some important commercial countries ; but to the United Kingdom and its Colonies it is peculiarly applicable ; as these consist almost entirely of islands and coast territories.

It is, perhaps, needless to remark that the commercial progress of our colonies cannot be safely measured by reference to any standard we are familiar with as applicable to that of the United Kingdom. In particular, however, it will be observed that nearly all the Colonies included in the present paper have been, during the period in view, receiving material additions to their population by immigration—that the North American Colonies, the Cape, Ceylon, and the Australian Colonies have received large importations of capital brought by new settlers—and that the landowners of the West Indies, the Cape, and Mauritius have, during the same

period, received an aggregate sum of £20,000,000 sterling as the price of their slaves. How this sum was disposed of—how much of it was actually sunk in improved cultivation of the soil, or in increasing the supply of labour—forms no part of the present inquiry.

*The Colonies now to be regarded may be conveniently divided into five groups: the North American, the West Indian, the African, the East Indian, and the Australian. And first as to the*

#### NORTH AMERICAN GROUP

THE most striking fact here is the rapid increase of the population, and of the area occupied and cultivated, between 1827 and 1846; and the chief source of this increase—immigration—suggests considerations without which no just estimate of the commercial progress of the group can be formed from inspection of the figures in the appendix.

The numbers of emigrants registered as having left the United Kingdom for the North American Colonies, during the twenty years referred to, were as follows:—

[From the Eighth General Report of the Emigration Commissioners, p. 40.]

1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
12,648	66,339	29,884	54,123
12,084	28,808	4,577	23,518
13,307	40,060	12,658	22,924
30,574	15,573	32,293	31,803
58,067	34,226	38,164	43,439
<u>126,680</u>	<u>185,006</u>	<u>117,576</u>	<u>175,807</u>
Total, 605,069.*			

\* The immigration into Canada from other parts of Europe, and from the United States, is perhaps nearly balanced by the re-emigration to the latter, and to Europe.

It will be observed that immigrants into a colony not only tend to increase the subsequent imports, by adding to the number of consumers of foreign produce, but also bring with them capital, the remittance of which tends immediately to increase the same branch of the colonial trade. And as the stream of immigration itself is important, so are its variations; and these will be found to coincide nearly with the fluctuations in the prosperity of small capitalists, and the ruder class of labourers, in the countries whence the immigrants come.\*

Of the increase of the area of this group actually occupied during the twenty years, it does not appear that there is any exact record. Of the population, the accounts, though anything but perfect, are perhaps as full as could reasonably be expected.

A somewhat detailed census of Lower Canada in 1831 (B.B.) gives, as the total population, 511,917; and returns to the House of Assembly for the same year state the number at 539,822. A census was taken in 1825, which gave 423,630; but a Committee of the House of Assembly, having examined the returns, reported that their statements were "much below the true amount." Probably the returns of 1831 are not much more worthy of reliance. A census taken in 1844, and recorded in detail in the Appendix D to the 5th vol. of the Journals of the Assembly, Session 1846, gives the following results:—

White—Male .....	344,885	
Female.....	346,077	
	<hr/>	690,962
Coloured—Male.....	140	
Female .....	141	
	<hr/>	281
		<hr/>
		691,243
		<hr/>

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\* This coincidence will be marked very nearly, for the North American Colonies, by comparing the number of emigrants in each year with the prices of grain and the amount of the poor rates, in England, in the year or two immediately preceding.

Under Ten Years of Age—Male .....	114,249	
Female .....	113,927	
	<hr/>	228,176
Sixty Years of Age, and over—Male .....	16,173	
Female .....	14,370	
	<hr/>	30,543
		<hr/>
		258,719
		<hr/>

In Upper Canada, according to a census made in 1823, the population was 150,169. Another in 1832 gave 276,953; and another in 1836 gave 358,187. The last census was, apparently, taken in 1842; when the results were :—

White—Male .....	257,505	
Female .....	248,283	
	<hr/>	499,788
Coloured—Male .....	2,409	
Female .....	1,708	
	<hr/>	4,107
		<hr/>
		503,895
		<hr/>

In Nova Scotia, by a census taken in 1827, the total population was 123,848. Another, taken in 1837, gave 199,906. There has been none taken since; but the governor, in October, 1848,\* estimated the population, at that time, at 300,000.

In New Brunswick, a census taken in 1824 gave a total of 72,932; and another in 1834 gave 119,457. The last was taken in 1840, when the numbers were 156,062. The governor, in April, 1848,† estimated the total at “more than 200,000.”

In Prince Edward Island, a census taken in 1827 gave, as the total population, 20,651; and another in 1833 gave 28,925. The last census was taken in 1841, and gave 47,034; and the governor, in May, 1847,‡ estimated the number at 56,000.

In Newfoundland, an imperfect census taken in 1827–28, afforded ground for an estimate of the total population at about 60,000. The last census was taken in 1845; when the total was 96,295.

\* See B.B. (printed) 1847, p. 4.

† Ibid., p. 16.

‡ See B.B. (printed) 1846, p. 6.

Upon these data the following estimate is framed, by way of affording a rough comparison of the probable population of the North American Group, at the beginning and end of the period here particularly in view :—

Colonies.	Estimate for 1826.	Estimate for 1846.
Canada, Lower . . . . .	480,000	750,000
Canada, Upper . . . . .	200,000	620,000
Nova Scotia . . . . .	130,000	280,000
New Brunswick . . . . .	80,000	190,000
Prince Edward Island . . . . .	21,000	55,000
Newfoundland . . . . .	55,000	100,000
	966,000	1,995,000 ( <i>a</i> )

The census of Lower Canada in 1844, states the composition of the population, with reference to origin, thus:—

Natives of Canada—Of French origin .....	524,307
Of British origin .....	85,660
	609,967
Immigrants—Natives of England .....	11,895
,, of Ireland.....	43,982
,, of Scotland .....	13,393
	69,270
Natives of the United States...	11,946
	81,216
	691,183

(*a*) As to the Hudson's Bay territory—in a report, dated 26th of October, 1845, by Lieutenants Warre and Vavasour, to the Colonial Secretary, is given the results of a census of a portion (estimated at about seven-eighths) of the Indian tribes in the Oregon territory, from lat. 42 to lat. 54. In a total of 75,868 there are said to have been 33,596 males, 35,182 females, 1,584 of both sexes under 12 years of age, and 5,146 slaves. The excess of females is in harmony with the returns of the negro population of the West Indies; but the number of children is obviously far too small, and, if it be true, seems to indicate the approaching extinction of these tribes. The Report will be found in the Sessional Paper, No. 103, of 1849.

It would thus appear, that the Canadians of French origin still, in that part of the colony, exceed all the rest, in the proportion of more than three to one.

The following is a summary of the appended tables, so far as they relate to the North American Group :—

QUINQUENNIAL AVERAGES.				
	1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
CANADA.				
Imports £	1,532,153	1,585,955	1,888,378	2,174,332
Exports £	1,266,135	1,034,600	1,411,927	1,819,695
(a) Shipping inwards, tons	226,643	321,890	412,885	520,021
" outwards, "	228,242	325,649	425,238	
NOVA SCOTIA AND CAPE BRETON.				
Imports £	1,306,865	1,022,798	1,381,933	984,225
Exports £	721,349	905,139	1,099,655	767,596
Shipping inwards, tons	166,730	248,873	304,645	380,802
" outwards, "	188,003	263,885	333,246	357,610
NEW BRUNSWICK.				
Imports £	644,704	857,129	1,133,925	794,785
Exports £	492,424	603,602	793,093	651,668
Shipping inwards, tons	282,043	320,662	377,466	420,191
" outwards, "	292,718	336,203	411,242	442,151
NEWFOUNDLAND.				
Imports £	805,723	667,029	738,801	783,870
Exports £	726,508	729,188	910,239	885,251
Shipping inwards, tons	91,114	97,695	104,079	128,407
" outwards, "	90,764	94,813	102,228	121,488
PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.				
Imports £	57,471	85,383	115,333	110,783
Exports £	43,659	40,436	59,631	63,867
Shipping inwards, tons	16,381	16,153	25,557	34,971
" outwards, "	20,128	18,897	30,957	39,119

*Summary of Imports and Exports for the North American Group, collectively.*

	1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
Imports £	4,346,916	4,218,294	5,258,370	4,847,995
Exports £	3,250,075	3,312,965	4,274,545	4,188,077

It is scarcely necessary to say that the staple produce of

(a) For the Ports of Quebec and Montreal only.

Canada (for export) is *timber*—and that of Newfoundland *fish*. Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island export both. And each colony builds *shipping* for export. The chief imports of all consist of tropical produce and materials for clothing, with iron and cordage (partly for use in shipbuilding), and salt for curing fish. The North American contrast strongly with the Australian Colonies in their want of facilities for the breeding of cattle. In the former this pursuit is checked by the long and severe winter, rendering necessary the provision of shelter and dry food at considerable expense, by great and rapid alternations of heat and cold, and by the thickly wooded character of the country, where it has not been cleared for agricultural purposes. None of these objections apply in Australia; and the Australian liability to drought, though a serious objection, appears to be far outweighed by other advantages. See Murray's "British America," vol. ii. chap. 1.

The shipping exported does not, of course, appear in the returns of the value of the exports; and is therefore to be allowed for. Its average value appears to be about £5 10s. per ton.

But no statement of the external trade of Canada, for past years, can be otherwise than imperfect. The extent of the transactions with the United States over the land frontier has not been ascertained; and were it known, it would still be requisite to distinguish the transit trade in this direction, between Britain and the United States, which has been encouraged, on the one hand, by the lower British duties on (so called) Canadian than on American produce, and, on the other, by the high duties on British manufactures exported to the United States direct.\*

\* Canada and the most northern of the United States are occasionally indebted to each other for considerable supplies of grain and flour. The quantities of wheat and wheat flour imported into the United Kingdom from the North American Colonies, and the Canadian import duties on such produce in each year from 1800 to 1842 inclusive, are stated in the Sessional Paper,

Minute examination of the accounts stated for the entire group, even on the assumption of their perfect accuracy, would therefore be labour lost. The accounts for Canada include about two-fifths of the total value of imports and exports; and these refer only to the ports of Quebec and Montreal. Through these ports only a part of the trade has passed; and that part has probably formed a different proportion of the whole in every year of the twenty brought to view. Further, as to all these colonies, the imports have been increased by immigration; the exports do not include shipping; and as to the continental colonies both imports and exports have been affected, in some degree, by the increased facilities of conveyance through the neighbouring states of the Union. It will be observed that Newfoundland—the colony least affected by these considerations—displays satisfactory evidence of progress through the entire period: the only exception occurring in *the value of the exports during the last quinquennial period*; and on reference to the annual accounts (see the tables appended) it appears that the last year (1846) was decidedly exceptional in this respect, and so much so as to cause nearly the whole of the falling off apparent in the quinquennial average.

The fish exported by these colonies goes chiefly to the West Indies and the south of Europe. Their timber and shipping come to England: the former under differential duties, and the latter attracted by the privilege of being registered as British, and so recognised in our ports.

For some years before 1827, and thence down to October, 1842, the British import duty on timber from these colonies was 10s. per load; the duty on foreign timber of the same

No. 240 of 1843. Under the bonding system of the United States, packages not broken may be passed, duty free, from American ports, inland, to Canada. Hence, of late years, Canada, as well as the North Western States, previously supplied with the produce of the East and West Indies and of the Southern States, chiefly through the St. Lawrence, have received large supplies by the Hudson River, and Erie Canal or Railway, to Lake Ontario, and by the railway from New York to Dunkirk on Lake Erie.

description being 55s. per load. The duties were reduced in October, 1842; and again in October, 1843; after which date, during the remainder of the 20 years in view, the duties were 2s. per load on colonial timber, sawn or split, and 1s. if imported in bulk; with corresponding duties of 24s. and 32s. on foreign timber. The protection may therefore be broadly stated at 45s. per load, for the first sixteen years; and 23s. for the remainder of the term.\*

The effect of this protection on the price to the British consumer may be estimated from the following comparison of the average prices (ex duty, per load) of Dantzic and Memel fir, and Quebec yellow pine, taken in the first week of April in each of the 20 years referred to.

[See Mr. Tooke's "History of Prices," Vol. II. and IV. Appendix.]

Dantzic & Memel Fir.				Quebec Yellow Pine.			
PER LOAD.				PER LOAD.			
1827	.....	45/ @ 47/	.....	50/ @ 53/	.....		
1828	.....	40/ „ 45/	.....	52/ „ 55/	.....		
1829	.....	42/ „ 50/	.....	57/ „ 60/	.....		
1830	.....	37/ „ 47/	.....	60/ „ —	.....		
1831	.....	42/ „ 50/	.....	60/ „ 63/	.....		
Averages		44·6		55·6			
Dantzic & Memel Fir.				Quebec Yellow Pine.			
PER LOAD.				PER LOAD.			
1832	.....	45/ @ 52/	.....	63/ @ 65/	.....		
1833	.....	50/ „ —	.....	60/ „ —	.....		
1834	.....	52/ „ —	.....	55/ „ 60/	.....		
1835	.....	47/ „ 52/	.....	70/ „ 75/	.....		
1836	.....	60/ „ —	.....	70/ „ —	.....		
Averages		51·0		64·6			

\* The North American timber is more soft, less durable, and every description of it more liable, though in different degrees, to the dry rot, than timber of the North of Europe. The Red Pine, however, which bears a small proportion to the other descriptions of timber, and the greater part of which, though imported from Canada, is the produce of the United States, is distinguished from the White Pine by its greater durability. On the whole, it is stated by one of the Commissioners of his Majesty's Navy, most distinguished for practical knowledge, experience, and skill [Sir Robert Seppings], that the timber of Canada, both oak and fir, does not possess, for the purpose of shipbuilding, more than half the durability of wood of the same description, the produce of the North of Europe. The result of its application to other purposes of building is described by timber merchants and carpenters to be nearly similar. The Lords' First Report on the Foreign Trade, S.P. 1821 (476), p. 4. See also McCulloch's Commercial Dictionary, art. "Timber Trade;" and Mervale's "Lectures on Colonisation and Colonies," vol. i. p. 202.

Dantzic & Memel Fir.				Quebec Yellow Pine.			
PER LOAD.				PER LOAD.			
1837	52/	@	55/	70/	@	—	
1838	50/	„	55/	60/	„	65/	
1839	102/6	„	110/	85/	„	—	
1840	102/6	„	110/	85/	„	—	
1841	102/6	„	110/	80/	„	95/	
Averages		85·0		78·0			

Dantzic & Memel Fir.				Quebec Yellow Pine.			
PER LOAD.				PER LOAD.			
1842	.....	102/6	@ 112/6	.....	80/	@	95/
1843	.....	85/	„ 92/6	.....	55/	„	65/
1844	.....	75/	„ 87/6	.....	62/6	„	67/
1845	.....	80/	„ 90/	.....	80/	„	—
1846	.....	80/	„ 90/	.....	70/	„	80/
Averages		89·6		73·0			

During the whole period a proportion varying from one-third to one-half of the imported timber used in the United Kingdom has been obtained from foreign countries, under the higher duty.

Few of our Colonies, excepting those in North America, take much advantage of the privilege of registering their shipping as British.

It is stated (Sessional Paper, 308 of 1847) that the total number of vessels registered at ports in the United Kingdom on the 1st of January, 1847, was 24,002—their aggregate tonnage being 3,148,323. Of these 2,076 vessels, tonnage 629,401, were built elsewhere than at home, as follows:—

	VESSELS.	TONS.
In the British Colonies in North America ...	1,747	548,327
„ East India Companies' Territories ...	99	52,964
„ Foreign Countries (Prizes).....	217	26,244
„ British West Indies.....	11	1,344
„ Mauritius .....	1	379
„ New South Wales .....	1	143
	<u>2,076</u>	<u>629,401</u>

According to this return, the average size of all the vessels registered in British ports is 131 tons—the average size of those built at home is 115 tons—of those built elsewhere, 303

tons—of those built in the British Colonies, 313 tons—and of those built in the East Indies, 524 tons.

By another return (Sessional Paper, 309 of 1847) it appears that of the shipping thus standing on the registers of the United Kingdom as built in the North American Colonies, the proportions derived from each colony were as follows:—

	VESSELS.	TONS.
Built in New Brunswick.....	608 .....	228,368
„ Canada.....	326 .....	154,930
„ Nova Scotia.....	417 .....	100,560
„ Cape Breton .....	22 .....	2,759
„ Prince Edward Island .....	311 .....	56,079
„ Newfoundland .....	63 .....	5,631
	<hr/> 1,747	<hr/> 548,327

Hence it would appear that the average size of the vessels built in each colony for the British market is nearly as under:—

New Brunswick..... tons	342	Cape Breton..... tons	125
Canada .....	„ 475	Prince Edward Island.. „	180
Nova Scotia .....	„ 241	Newfoundland..... „	89

These colonies, then, had at the end of 1846 provided more than one-sixth of the shipping then registered as British; and the vessels so provided, though apparently of every variety of size used in the foreign trade of the kingdom, were, on an average, nearly three times as large as those built at home.

The following statement (also compiled from the Sessional Paper, 309 of 1847) of the tonnage of vessels registered at ports in the United Kingdom as built in the North American Colonies, during the five years 1842–46, would appear to indicate that the aggregate tonnage of the shipping from each colony, on the register at the end of 1846, is not to be relied upon as showing the proportion of British shipping thence derived during the last few years.

	New Brunswick.		Canada.		Nova Scotia.
	TONS.		TONS.		TONS.
1842 .....	2,904	.....	4,848	.....	1,047
1843 .....	1,350	.....	3,574	.....	1,207
1844 .....	4,331	.....	4,679	.....	—
1845 .....	3,428	.....	4,970	.....	167
1846 .....	4,561	.....	5,997	.....	687
	<u>16,574</u>		<u>24,068</u>		<u>3,098</u>

	Prince Edward Island.		Newfoundland.		Cape Breton.
	TONS.		TONS.		TONS.
1842 .....	992	.....	97	.....	—
1843 .....	184	.....	44	.....	—
1844 .....	—	.....	252	.....	—
1845 .....	807	.....	114	.....	—
1846 .....	272	.....	53	.....	—
	<u>2,255</u>		<u>560</u>		<u>—</u>

## SUMMARY.

	TONS.
From New Brunswick.....	16,574
Canada.....	24,068
Nova Scotia .....	3,098
Prince Edward Island .....	2,255
Newfoundland .....	560
	<u>46,555</u>

So it would seem that little more than *eight per cent.* of the North American colonial-built shipping on the register at the end of 1846 had been registered during the five years immediately preceding, or could, therefore, be then standing in the A class at Lloyd's.\*

The number of vessels, and their aggregate tonnage, registered as belonging to the ports of the British Colonies have been more than doubled during the last twenty years; and

\* A ship built in the North American Colonies will commonly stand for four years after building in the A class on Lloyd's register; she cannot, by the rules, be retained in that class for more than five years. British-built vessels may remain twelve years in class A. The distinction has reference chiefly to the quality of the timber employed. See the Report of the Commons' Committee on British Shipping, 1844, pp. 11, 12.

both have increased more rapidly in the Colonies generally than at home, as the following figures will show. The difference in the average size of the vessels is remarkable, but will be best observed in dealing with each group of colonies separately.

## COLONIES.

	VESSELS.		TONS.		Average size of Vessels.
					TONS.
In 1827 .....	3,675	.....	279,362	.....	76
1837 .....	5,501	.....	457,497	.....	83
1847 .....	7,788	.....	644,603	.....	82

## UNITED KINGDOM AND POSSESSIONS IN EUROPE.

	VESSELS.		TONS.		Average size of Vessels.
					TONS.
In 1827 .....	19,524	.....	2,181,138	.....	112
1837 .....	20,536	.....	2,333,521	.....	113
1847 .....	25,200	.....	3,307,921	.....	131

The Colonies included in the present inquiry are not all that are referred to by the above statement; but the shipping belonging to the North American group forms so large a proportion of the whole as to impart much of its own character to the aggregate, as will presently appear.

I do not find any detailed return of the shipping belonging to each colony previous to 1836. The following table exhibits a comparison of the shipping belonging to the North American Colonies in that year and in 1846 :—

	1836 (a)			1846 (b)		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Average size of Vessels.	Vessels.	Tons.	Average size of Vessels.
Canada .....	396	35,310	84	604	67,523	111
Nova Scotia and Cape Breton .....	1,709	96,996	56	2,583	141,093	55
New Brunswick .....	587	84,425	143	730	105,828	145
Newfoundland .....	677	46,916	69	937	59,938	64
Prince Edward Island .....	130	6,397	49	265	19,540	73
	3,499	270,044	77	5,119	393,922	76

(a) Revenue Tables, 1838, p. 43.

(b) Ibid, 1846, p. 51.

The increase as to all these colonies, in the number of vessels and their aggregate tonnage, and also of the average size of the vessels in all excepting Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, has an obvious reference to the comparative cheapness of the North American shipping, as well as to an increased trade.

### THE WEST INDIAN GROUP

CONSISTS, as already stated, of portions of the Columbian archipelago and of Central and South America.

The whole area of the archipelago is estimated at 86,548 square miles. Of which is

		SQUARE MILES.
<i>Independent</i> .....	Hayti .....	25,000
		<hr/>
<i>Dependent on seven different states:</i> six European, and one South American.....	Spain .....	46,437
	Great Britain .....	13,273
	France .....	1,011
	Holland .....	394
	Venezuela .....	243
	Denmark .....	164
	Sweden .....	25
		<hr/>
		61,547 *

Or, dividing the whole into 100 equal parts.

Hayti has about .....	29 parts
Spain .....	54 „
Great Britain .....	15 „
And France, Holland, Venezuela, Denmark, and Sweden the remaining.....	2 „
	<hr/>
	100

The total population of the archipelago, according to the

\* See Schomburgk's "History of Barbadoes," 1848.

latest accounts, appears to have been, in 1846, about 3,400,000.\*

Of these there were in Hayti, by a rough estimate.....	1,000,000
In the Spanish Colonies .....	1,280,000
„ English „ .....	798,800
„ French „ .....	249,000 †
„ Dutch „ .....	17,000
„ Danish „ .....	48,000
„ Swedish „ .....	1,600
	<hr/>
And in the islands dependent on the Republic of Venezuela	2,394,400
	18,000
	<hr/>
Population—Colonial.....	2,412,400
	<hr/>

The aboriginal population appears to be nearly extinct; 278 Caribs are, however, noticed in the census of St. Vincent, in 1844. They are said to be chiefly employed in working boats through the surf on the windward coast.

The British continental colonies are extensive, but of undefined area.

Humboldt, in the *Essai Politique sur l'Isle de Cuba*, published in 1826, estimated the population of the English Antilles as under:—

Slaves—Blacks, and a few Mulattoes .....	626,800
Free persons of colour—Mulattoes, and Blacks .....	78,350
Whites .....	71,350
	<hr/>
Total.....	776,500
	<hr/>

English, French, and Dutch Guiana he estimated together, thus:—

\* See Schomburgk's "History of Barbadoes," 1848.

† *Patria* 1847, art. "Colonies," p. 2,403.

Negroes.....	206,000
Mixed Races .....	20,000
Whites .....	10,000
Total.....	<u>236,000</u>

I am not aware of the existence of any other statements of the population of these colonies about the time referred to by Humboldt (and which is also at the commencement of the period we now have particularly in view) more precise, or more to be relied upon than those found in the earlier Blue Books. From these, and from the most recent reports received from each colony, the following comparative statement has been compiled, as the basis of such an estimate as can yet be made of the changes which have taken place in this respect during the twenty years. The census or estimate made in the colony at the time nearest to that required, is placed on the left—my own inferred estimate on the right of each column.

Colony.	Estimate for 1826.	Estimate for 1846.
BAHAMAS .....	In 1827..... 16,204 16,200	In 1841 ..... 25,292 In 1845 ..... 26,500 27,000
JAMAICA .....	No return of the white or free coloured population near this time. Slaves registered in 1826... 331,119 350,000	In 1844 ... 377,433 Immigrants in 1845 540 " in 1846 606 (a) 1,146 380,000
LEEWARD ISLANDS.		
ANTIGUA .....	In 1827-8 ..... 35,946 36,000	In 1844 ..... 36,178 37,000
ST. KITTS.....	In 1829 ..... 23,133 23,000	In 1844 ..... 23,177 24,000
DOMINICA .....	In 1826 ..... 18,880 19,000	In 1844 ..... 22,469 23,000

Colony.	Estimate for 1826.	Estimate for 1846.
<b>LEEWARD ISLANDS.</b> <i>Continued.</i>		
NEVIS . . . . .	Slaves registered in 1825... 9,286 10,500	In 1844 ..... 9,571 (a) 10,000
VIRGIN ISLES . . . . .	In 1835..... 7,739 7,500	In 1841 ... .. 6,689 6,800
MONTSEERAT.....	In 1823..... 7,367 1829..... 7,353 7,400	In 1844 ..... 7,365 7,500
<b>WINDWARD ISLANDS.</b>		
TRINIDAD . . . . .	In 1825..... 42,262 1831..... 41,675 42,000	In 1844 ..... 59,815 Immigrants in 1845 420 " in 1846 100 (b) 520 62,000
GRENADA . . . . .	In 1827..... 28,872 29,000	In 1844 ..... 28,923 30,000
ST. VINCENT . . . . .	In 1825.... 27,905 28,200	In 1844 ..... 27,248 (c) 29,000
ST. LUCIA . . . . .	In 1822..... 19,201 1824..... 19,225 20,000	In 1844 ..... 21,001 (d) 23,000
TOBAGO . . . . .	In 1827..... 15,501 15,600	In 1844 ..... 13,208 (e) 13,500
BARBADOES . . . . .	In 1828..... 101,257 102,000	In 1844 ..... 122,198 (f) 126,000
BRITISH GUIANA . . . . .	Demerara & Essequibo in 1829 71,319 73,000 Berbice, in 1827 ..... 21,802 22,500 95,500	In 1841 ..... 98,133 Estimated increase in 1847, by births, &c. 2,147 " by immigration 21,398 121,678 122,000
HONDURAS . . . . .	In 1826..... 5,653 6,000	No census. Population much scattered. Estimated by the Governor, in 1848, at 15,000

(a) The Governor, in his report for 1847, says "the population amounts to about 10,000, and is gradually increasing. Emigration to the other islands has nearly ceased."

(b) S.P. 1847 496.

(c) In the Governor's report for 1847, estimated at "upwards of 30,000."

(d) In the Governor's report for 1847, estimated at 23,000.

(e) Another census in 1847 gave 12,817; but this is supposed in the colony to be inaccurate.

(f) The Governor considered the returns of 1844 defective; and estimated the population at 130,000. S.P. 426, 1845, p. 7.

## SUMMARY

	In 1826.	1846.
BAHAMAS .....	16,200	27,000
JAMAICA .....	350,000	380,000
LEEWARD ISLANDS.		
{ ANTIGUA .....	36,000	37,000
{ ST. KITTS .....	23,000	24,000
{ DOMINICA .....	19,000	23,000
{ NEVIS .....	10,500	10,000
{ VIRGIN ISLES .....	7,500	6,800
{ MONTSERRAT .....	7,400	7,500
	<u>103,400</u>	<u>108,300</u>
	(Sugar Colonies) 785,700	(Sugar Colonies) 893,800
WINDWARD ISLANDS.		
{ TRINIDAD .....	42,000	62,000
{ GRENADA .....	29,000	30,000
{ ST. VINCENT .....	28,200	29,000
{ ST. LUCIA .....	20,000	23,000
{ TOBAGO .....	15,600	13,500
	<u>134,800</u>	<u>157,500</u>
BARBADOES .....	102,000	126,000
BRITISH GUIANA .....	95,500	122,000
HONDURAS .....	6,000	15,000
Totals...	<u>807,900</u>	<u>935,800</u>

The distinction of *colour* has been very generally abandoned in enumerations of the population made since the period of emancipation. Hence the proportion of white inhabitants cannot now be closely estimated upon any satisfactory data. The only colonies in which the distinction has been acted upon of late years are the following. The date of the last census published, and the results, are added.

<i>Jamaica</i> —Census, June 3, 1844.	Whites, Male .....	9,289	
	Female.....	6,487	
			15,776
<i>St. Vincent</i> —Census, June 3, 1844.	Whites (sex not distinguished) .....		1,268
<i>St. Lucia</i> —Census, June 3, 1844.	Whites, Male .....	549	
	Female .....	490	
			1,039
<i>Bahamas</i> —Census, 1841.	Whites, Male.....	2,992	
	Female.....	3,070	
			6,062
	Total.....		24,145
Aggregate population of these four colonies, by the preceding estimate			459,000
Proportion, per cent., of white to coloured population.....			5.26

The distinction of *sex* has been adhered to, though not always preserved in the statement for particular districts, in the most recent enumerations for each of the West Indian Colonies, except Honduras, where no regular census has, apparently, ever been made.

The following abstract, showing a remarkable, and almost invariable, excess of the female population, may excite either doubt as to the general accusation of the enumerations, or curiosity as to a phenomenon so unusual. It will be remembered that in the white section of the population (see the statement last preceding) the males are generally greatly in excess, and that the figures below are aggregates of white and coloured.

Colony.	Date of Census.	Males.	Females.	Proportion of Males to Females.
BAHAMAS .....	1841.	12,623	12,621	Equal.
JAMAICA .....	June 3, 1844.	181,633	195,800	93 to 100.
LEEWARD ISLANDS.				
ANTIGUA .....	March 15, 1844.	16,722	19,456	86 to 100.
ST. KITTS .....	June 3, 1844.	10,523	12,654	
DOMINICA .....	" "	10,788	11,681	
NEVIS .....	" "	4,418	5,153	
VIRGIN ISLES .....	1841.	3,130	3,559	
MONTSEERAT .....	June 3, 1844.	3,336	4,029	Excess of Males.
WINDWARD ISLANDS.		48,917	56,532	
TRINIDAD .....	" "	30,713	29,102	
GRENADA .....	" "	13,732	15,191	88 to 100.
ST. VINCENT .....	" "	12,600	14,648	
ST. LUCIA .....	" "	9,871	11,130	
TOBAGO .....	" "	6,152	7,056	
		42,355	48,025	84 to 100. Excess of Males.
BARBADOES .....	" "	56,004	66,194	
BRITISH GUIANA .....	October 10, 1841.	49,787	48,346.	

In glancing over this table the eye at once detects, besides the instance of the Bahamas, in which the number of each sex is very nearly the same, two exceptions to the rule of excess in the number of females—Trinidad and British Guiana. Without entering upon any inquiry into the causes of the excess, where it occurs, I may here draw attention to the effect of immigration, as offering an obvious (and perhaps

sufficient) explanation of these exceptions. In the Sessional paper, No. 496, of 1847, will be found a statement of the number of immigrants introduced into Jamaica, British Guiana, and Trinidad, in each of the thirteen years 1834-46. It is well known that these immigrants are chiefly males; though the proportion of males is not stated in the paper I have referred to. The aggregate for Jamaica in the thirteen years is 8,516, for British Guiana 33,852, and for Trinidad 17,794. By the estimate before made, the population of these colonies, in 1846, was, respectively, 380,000, 122,000, and 62,000. Hence we may infer that the proportion of immigrants at the time the distinction of sex now under consideration was marked was, in the population of Jamaica about 2 per cent., in that of British Guiana about 27 per cent., and in that of Trinidad about 28 per cent. No precise returns have, I understand, been received in this country of the number of immigrants into any of the other West Indian Colonies since emancipation; but the number is not supposed to be large in any instance; and the comparative population returns already noticed afford evidence confirmatory of this supposition—the augmentation in some of the Colonies being nearly balanced by reductions in others, and apparently having reference to inter-colonial migration rather than to immigration from without.

The large excess of females thus apparent in all the West Indian Colonies in which the population has not been recently and materially disturbed by immigration, strongly suggests the importance of additional care in distinguishing sex and age in any future and improved census of these colonies.

It has been stated that the whole apparent increase of the population of the West Indian Colonies in 1846, as compared with 1826, was from 807,900 to 935,800, showing an addition of 128,000. The return of the number of immigrants before referred to (S.P. 496 of 1847) relates only to Jamaica, British Guiana, and Trinidad, and as to Trinidad includes only immi-

grant labourers introduced at the public expense. Inquiries in search of further information have led me to the inference that the immigration into the other Colonies, or into Trinidad at private cost (of which no account has been received in this country), has not been considerable. The whole number returned for the three colonies above mentioned is 60,162. The returns extend over the thirteen years 1834-46; but the immigration appears to have taken place chiefly in the last six years—thus:—

## IMMIGRANTS.

	In seven years, 1834-40.	In six years, 1841-46.
Into Jamaica .....	2,533	5,983
„ British Guiana .....	6,483	27,369
„ Trinidad .....	3,021	14,773
	<u>12,037</u>	<u>48,125</u>

If the whole increase by immigration be taken at 65,000, that arising from excess of births and deaths would appear to have been about 63,000, giving an increase of only 7·83 per cent. in twenty years, and exhibiting a rate of increase so low as to leave us no alternative between distrust of the data on which such a conclusion rests, and much curiosity respecting the social condition of the people in question.

The following is a summary of the appended Tables for this Group:—

		1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
BAHAMAS.	Imports £	179,329	134,800	156,269	130,526
	Exports £	90,652	89,190	98,934	75,868
	Shipping inwards, tons	36,408	44,938	30,655	49,197
	„ outwards, „	37,445	42,556	27,993	47,938
JAMAICA.	Imports £	—	1,768,339	1,924,828	1,255,342
	Exports £	—	2,975,260	2,551,638	1,891,469
	Shipping inwards, tons	127,366	88,122	—	—
	„ outwards, „	132,078	101,106	—	—
LEEWARD ISLANDS.	Imports £	253,532	346,707	524,870	515,374
	Exports £	712,935	597,461	706,319	643,579
	Shipping inwards, tons	86,319	80,860	76,897	90,091
	„ outwards, „	86,700	81,881	75,969	88,797

		1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
WINDWARD ISLANDS.					
	Imports £	889,783	772,631	1,022,743	896,094
	Exports £	1,436,022	1,165,109	1,218,929	994,660
	Shipping inwards, tons	145,843	119,319	124,627	132,984
	„ outwards, „	147,249	119,211	125,781	131,415
BARBADOES.					
	Imports £	372,994	518,013	692,813	636,599
	Exports £	667,059	621,608	733,420	675,619
	Shipping inwards, tons	52,354	67,384	77,651	92,750
	„ outwards, „	50,998	68,733	76,429	90,281
BRITISH GUIANA.					
	Imports £	865,940	747,934	1,046,735	816,577
	Exports £	2,088,355	1,853,305	1,606,675	876,986
	Shipping inwards, tons	108,419	113,775	110,760	96,101
	„ outwards, „	108,466	113,475	110,447	94,545
HONDURAS.					
	Imports £	260,945	246,077	379,269	261,137
	Exports £	292,936	294,464	—	338,030
	Shipping inwards, tons	15,200	19,150	23,807	26,058
	„ outwards, „	14,753	19,582	—	24,632

The defects observable in the accounts for Jamaica preclude the formation of a summary of the results here exhibited.

The chief exports of the West Indies are generally known to be sugar, rum, coffee, and cocoa, with a little cotton, and some pimento and other spices ; and from Honduras, mahogany and logwood. The chief imports are provisions and clothing ; timber, for building and for packing the produce exported ; and hardwares, chiefly agricultural implements and tools. The islands are, for the most part, belts of alluvial soil surrounding interior districts more or less elevated, rugged, and barren ; and under their European management may be regarded as sugar farms, largely dependent, as farms commonly are, upon supplies from without.\*

The tables just given would show that, generally, the trade of the West Indian group has, of late years, been declining. The apparent decline is most striking in the instance of Jamaica ; but in this instance the accounts relied upon are the least perfect. Other evidence must therefore be sought.

\* Hence the remark that a hostile fleet laden with barrels, not of gunpowder, but of flour, might at any time reduce them by blockade.

Having regard to the various opinions afloat in this country on the subject, it might reasonably be expected that the decline thus apparent in the commercial condition of the West Indian Colonies would be in some degree elucidated by an analysis of the course of prices for sugar, their staple produce, prevailing in this country—almost the sole locality of its consumption. Fortunately for any such purpose, the prices of British West Indian Muscovado sugar in London have for a long term of years been ascertained and recorded, by weekly and annual averages founded upon actual sales. Taking these prices from the *London Gazette*, it will be found that for the

Ten years, 1797–1806, the average price was .....	55s. 6d. per cwt.
In the ten years, 1807–16.....	49 7 „
Average for twenty years .....	52s. 6d.
In the ten years, 1817–26.....	37 6 „
„ „ 1827–36.....	30 6 „
„ „ 1837–46.....	36 9 „
Average for thirty years .....	34s. 10d.
Average for fifty years .....	42 0 „

It has long been apparent that producers are distressed by two descriptions of change in the market value of what they produce—by a *fall*, and by *fluctuation*. It is observable that, though the average price of a long period of years must, if production be maintained, be received as covering the average cost of production and leaving a profit, a return to the level of such an average after the prevalence, for a time, of prices materially higher, causes hardly less complaint than a decline of equal amount from the average downwards; and, generally, that changes in price are detrimental to the producer even independently of their relation to the average which, under ordinary circumstances, yields him a fair profit. The first two decennial periods above noticed fall, it will be observed, within, or nearly within, the duration of the war which so much affected the commercial relations of these colonies—the last three are within a period of unbroken peace. If, in the first place, the average of the whole fifty years be taken as the

standard, the deviations of the decennial averages, in excess or deficiency, are as follows:—

	Relation of the decennial average to that of the whole fifty years.	
	In Excess.	In Deficiency.
1st period, 1797—1806.....	32 per cent.	—
2nd „ 1807—1816.....	18 „	—
3rd „ 1817—1826.....	—	10·7 per cent.
4th „ 1827—1836.....	—	27·3 „
5th „ 1837—1846.....	—	12·5 „

Thus, between the first decennial period and the fourth there was a variation from 32 per cent. above to more than 27 per cent. below the average. In the first four periods there was a progressive decline to this extent. But in the fifth there was a movement in the opposite direction, great enough in effect to place the fifth period and the third nearly upon a level, in relation to the fifty years' average.

But circumstances already stated seem to justify a separation of the period of twenty years, 1797—1816, from the remainder, as having been affected by influences peculiar to itself. The thirty years, 1817—46, have an average of 34s. 10d. per cwt., as the price paid in London for British West Indian sugar—the average in the first ten years having been 37s. 6d., in the second 30s. 6d., and in the third 36s. 9d.; and the greatest decennial deviation from the average (that downwards in the second period) being 14 per cent. Here, however, it is obviously desirable to have regard to shorter periods in marking the fluctuations of price. Agriculturists are observably affected in their operations by annual changes of price. It may therefore be desirable to mark the fluctuations annually for the period now especially in view; and, in doing so, the

average of the thirty years, 1817-46, appears to be preferable, as a standard, to that of the twenty years, 1827-46, as embracing the longer period, and not differing materially from that of the shorter one (33s. 8d.).

The following table accordingly exhibits the average price in each year, and its relation to the thirty years' average:—

Years.	Annual average price of British West Indian Muscovado Sugar per cwt. from the London Gazette. (a)		Excess	Deficiency
			in relation to the average price for the thirty years 1817-46.	
	s.	d.		
1827	35	9	2.6 per cent.	—
1828	31	8	—	9. per cent.
1829	28	7	—	18.
1830	24	11	—	28.4
1831	23	8	—	32.
1832	27	8	—	20.5
1833	29	8	—	14.8
1834	29	5	—	15.5
1835	33	5	—	4.
1836	40	10	17.2	—
1837	34	7	—	9
1838	33	8	—	3.3
1839	39	2	12.4	—
1840	49	1	40.9	—
1841	39	8	11.4	—
1842	36	11	5.9	—
1843	33	9	—	3.1
1844	33	8	—	3.3
1845	32	11	—	5.5
1846	34	5	—	1.1
Average		34 10		

It will be observed that the largest variation is in *excess* (in 1840), and that there were no considerable variations *below* the average during the last twelve years (1835-46).

(a) The Sessional Paper No. 400 of 1848 contains tabular statements of the Imports, Import Duties, and Prices, from 1793 to 1847.

If, to bring this table into closer comparison with the divisions I have adopted for marking the progress of the trade of these colonies, it be divided under four periods of five years each, the fluctuation of prices will be as under :—

Average in the five years, 1827-31 .....	28s. 11d.
"          "          1832-36 .....	32   2
"          "          1837-41 .....	39   2
"          "          1842-46 .....	34   4
Average of the ten years, 1827-36 .....	30s. 6d.
"          "          1837-46 .....	36   9

It seems obvious, then, that mere decline of price cannot, down to 1846, be received as the cause of the apparent decay of the West Indian sugar trade. And even fluctuation of price does not appear to have operated so unfavourably of late years as formerly. The average for the year 1847 was 28s. 3d.; but it will be seen, on reference to the last table, that the average of the six consecutive years, 1829-34, was only 27s. 3d. It will also be seen, however, that from 1840 to 1845 there was a continuous fall of price, small in each year, but in the aggregate great, being from the scarcity price of 49s. 1d. (in 1840) down to 32s. 11d. (in 1845)—a fall of 17s. 10d.: yet the price of 1845 was but 1s. 11d. (or about  $5\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.) below the thirty years' average. The fall of 1847 was aggravated in effect by following closely on this continuous decline—the whole difference between the average of 1840 and that of 1847 being 20s. 10d. But a careful consideration of the whole table makes it evident that the main cause of West Indian distress is not to be found in any variation of price.

A much more powerful cause appears in the fact that the quantity of their produce available for exportation has been gradually declining during the whole twenty years. Protective duties have secured the transmission of their

staple produce to this country, and the following figures show the extent to which the quantity received here has been reduced :—

Imported into the United Kingdom from the West Indies.—Annual Average.

	SUGAR.	COFFEE.
	CWTS.	LBS.
In the five years, 1827-31 .....	4,006,835 .....	26,670,601
"    "    1832-36 .....	3,677,313 .....	19,904,536
"    "    1837-41 .....	2,799,787 .....	13,473,389
"    "    1842-46 .....	2,493,325 .....	7,985,153
In the year 1847 .....	3,199,821 .....	6,770,792

At the same time the supply of sugar and coffee from other British possessions has been increasing, as follows :—

	Imported into the United Kingdom, the produce of, and from, the East India Company's Territories and Ceylon and Mauritius.	
	ANNUAL AVERAGE.	
	SUGAR.	COFFEE.
	CWTS.	LBS.
In the 5 years, 1827-31 .....	541,901	6,868,269
"    "    1832-36 .....	642,537	8,204,953
"    "    1837-41 .....	1,196,776	12,052,971
"    "    1842-46 .....	1,836,638	18,244,259

Thus the *total* supply of sugar from British possessions has been kept nearly upon a level; and if the annual average supply in each quinquennial period be compared with the average price (before stated), a close correspondence will be observed in the direction and extent of their variations.

	SUGAR.	
	Total supply from British possessions.	Average Price.
	<i>Annual Average.</i>	
In the 5 years 1827-31 .....	cwts. 4,548,736	s. d. 28 11
"    "    1832-36 .....	4,319,850	32 2
"    "    1837-41 .....	3,996,563	39 2
"    "    1842-46 .....	4,329,963	34 4
Annual average for 20 years .....	4,298,778	33 8
In the year 1847 .....	5,800,546	28 3

Or the relation of the supply to the price of British colonial sugar may be expressed, shortly, by a comparison of the former in thousands of cwts. with the latter in pence per cwt., for each quinquennial period, thus:—

Periods.	Supply.	Price.	Excess,		Deficiency.	
			Per cent. as compared with the annual average of twenty years.			
	In thousands of cwts.	In pence, per cwt.	Of supply,	Of price,	Of supply,	Of price,
1827-31	4,548	347	5·8	—	—	14·1
1832-36	4,319	386	·5	—	—	4·4
1837-41	3,996	470	—	16·3	7·	—
1842-46	4,329	412	—	1·9	—	·7
In the year 1847.	5,800	339	35·	—	—	16·

(a) It may be objected to any inference from the contents of this table, that two important elements in the relation of price to supply are not here brought

Thus, in the five years, 1827–31, the West Indian Colonies provided 88 per cent. of the supply from British possessions, and in the five years, 1842–46, only 57 per cent.—the aggregate amount of this supply having declined in the interval in the proportion of 454 to 432, or nearly 5 per cent.

It may also be observed, without entering upon any question of party politics touching the admission of a foreign supply, that the fluctuations of price here marked, down to and including that of 1847, appear to be tolerably well accounted for by the variations in the aggregate amount of the colonial supply alone.

So much for the western sugar colonies as a group. But it will already have suggested itself to the reader that among fourteen or fifteen colonies scattered over a space including some seventeen degrees of latitude, and each subjected to powerful internal influences of its own, it is anything but improbable that there were material variations of individual condition affecting the production of sugar during the period in question, independently of those shared by the whole; and that no conclusion deduced from the general statements already made respecting the causes of the latter class of variations can be deemed a safe one, till it is in some degree confirmed by an examination in detail.

The annual accounts of imports, exports and shipping, as to each colony (see the appended tables) afford some (though very inadequate) means of instituting such an examination; and the following tables compiled from returns of the quantity of sugar imported from each colony into the United Kingdom,

into view—I mean the increase of population, and the extension of the habitual use of sugar. I admit the validity of the objection. But, as the present question is not one requiring for its discussion a very refined analysis of the relation referred to, the omitted elements would seem to be sufficiently represented by an equable (but small) increase, during the whole period, of the price due to a given supply; and, on an inspection of the table with this in the mind, it becomes apparent that the introduction of any such change would only render closer the correspondence between the British supply and the price through the entire period.

during each of the fifteen years 1832-46, will further aid this purpose.

## WINDWARD ISLANDS.

*Sugar imported from—into the United Kingdom.*

	Trinidad.	Grenada.	St. Vincent.	St. Lucia.	Tobago.
	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.
1832	312,266	188,231	186,812	47,966	111,522
1833	286,303	204,074	194,889	46,548	86,527
1834	339,615	194,542	213,017	63,306	79,018
1835	289,393	170,280	195,057	54,744	77,260
1836	312,141	156,311	186,482	38,084	117,643
	<u>1,539,718</u>	<u>933,438</u>	<u>976,257</u>	<u>250,648</u>	<u>471,970</u>
1837	295,367	161,922	201,191	51,430	90,803
1838	286,247	156,798	194,182	61,691	71,621
1839	268,669	117,260	151,899	50,215	66,244
1840	245,778	88,982	101,020	37,667	51,548
1841	281,606	84,270	110,205	51,115	48,164
	<u>1,377,667</u>	<u>609,232</u>	<u>758,497</u>	<u>252,118</u>	<u>328,380</u>
1842	286,005	83,836	127,269	65,564	46,913
1843	323,360	85,935	132,846	54,299	45,838
1844	274,558	78,590	135,637	69,383	49,317
1845	364,152	71,252	132,673	71,250	62,709
1846	353,293	76,931	129,870	63,566	38,822
	<u>1,601,368</u>	<u>396,544</u>	<u>658,295</u>	<u>324,062</u>	<u>243,599</u>

The leading points of these tables may be expressed thus:—

## IMPORTATIONS.

<i>Greater in 1842-46 than in 1832-36.</i>			<i>Less in 1842-46 than in 1832-36.</i>		
From Trinidad .....	by	4 per cent.	From Grenada.....	by	57·5 per cent.
St. Lucia .....	29·6	„	St. Vincent ...	32·6	„
Antigua.....	2·1	„	Tobago .....	48·4	„
St. Kitts .....	21·	„	Nevis .....	34·	„
Dominica .....	20·	„	Virgin Islands	63·5	„
			Montserrat ...	43·1	„
			Jamaica .....	46·5	„
			Barbadoes.....	6·8	„
			Demerara .....	47·1	„
			Berbice .....	28·8	„

The diminution between 1832-36 and 1842-46 upon the importations from all these colonies, taken together, was 32·1 per cent.

LEEWARD ISLANDS.

*Sugar imported from—into the United Kingdom.*

	Antigua.	St. Kitts.	Dominica.	Nevis.	Virgin Islands.	Montserrat.
	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.
1832	143,336	80,602	58,270	39,848	14,999	20,856
1833	129,519	80,390	47,372	42,287	14,969	15,507
1834	257,177	105,355	54,876	59,748	21,926	26,631
1835	174,818	87,614	25,014	39,637	13,821	16,261
1836	135,482	64,810	35,213	24,723	13,510	11,760
	840,332	418,771	220,745	206,243	79,225	91,015
1837	62,170	73,270	33,724	24,269	13,534	5,695
1838	203,043	93,597	48,290	25,410	7,279	10,413
1839	222,689	135,541	29,385	36,731	5,249	13,443
1840	203,071	94,390	34,673	27,857	7,366	12,205
1841	144,103	63,936	42,342	12,124	8,397	10,839
	835,076	460,741	188,414	126,391	41,825	52,595
1842	147,414	95,634	55,278	23,853	5,866	13,685
1843	173,401	77,360	46,118	24,649	6,750	8,913
1844	225,150	119,710	52,803	29,590	2,454	12,547
1845	210,013	122,773	57,883	30,858	7,177	11,265
1846	102,644	91,022	52,700	26,714	6,786	5,316
	858,622	506,499	264,782	135,664	29,033	51,726

JAMAICA.—BARBADOES.—AND BRITISH GUIANA.

*Sugar imported from—into the United Kingdom.*

	Jamaica.	Barbadoes.	British Guiana.	
	cwts.	cwts.	Demerara.	Berbice.
1832	1,431,689	266,465	736,562	134,036
1833	1,256,991	384,971	754,122	101,736
1834	1,256,253	394,527	687,282	90,699
1835	1,148,760	344,689	760,376	126,485
1836	1,054,042	373,428	864,134	213,714
	6,147,735	1,764,080	3,802,476	666,670
1837	904,299	445,713	792,852	150,536
1838	1,053,181	473,587	655,173	180,127
1839	765,078	395,109	440,132	126,720
1840	518,541	207,484	486,487	93,157
1841	528,585	257,108	415,261	90,063
	3,769,684	1,779,001	2,789,905	640,603
1842	779,149	312,568	375,318	89,922
1843	659,633	349,048	434,808	85,175
1844	529,935	328,708	447,817	95,810
1845	742,867	351,485	499,102	120,575
1846	572,883	302,496	252,449	73,307
	3,284,467	1,644,305	2,009,494	474,789

The aggregate quantity of sugar imported from Trinidad, St. Lucia, Antigua, St. Kitts, and Dominica, in the five years 1832-36, amounted to 3,270,214 cwts.; forming 17·7 per cent. of the quantity imported from all the West Indian Colonies during the same period. The quantity imported from these five islands in the five years, 1842-46, was 3,555,333 cwts.; forming 28·4 per cent. of the importations from the West Indian Colonies. It will at once be observed that the two most important islands in this apparently fortunate list—Trinidad and Antigua—are those which exhibit the smallest increase. The remaining three, however—St. Lucia, St. Kitts, and Dominica—yielded in 1832-36 an aggregate of 890,164 cwts., and in 1842-46 one of 1,095,343 cwts. The greatest variation in any particular group is, obviously, that observed in the Leeward Islands: the importations from Antigua, St. Kitts, and Dominica, having increased from 1,509,751 cwts. in five years, to 1,689,183 cwts., while those from Nevis, the Virgin Isles, and Montserrat, fell from 376,483 to 216,423 cwts. The increase in the larger (Leeward) islands did not make good more than about half the deficiency in the lesser ones; but it appears probable that by a close comparison of these islands with each other and with those the importations from which have most fallen off, the main causes of the general decline would receive additional illustration.

It would not be proper, even in so cursory a review as the present, to omit all notice of the peculiar conditions under which labour and capital are applied in the West Indies. The climate precludes the employment of the labour of Europeans in the field; and the same cause, combined with the social advantages of a residence in England, also tends strongly to make the British proprietors absentees. The French West Indian proprietors formerly, and the Spanish at present, are much more accustomed to reside on their plantations; but it is apparent that both the causes of absenteeism alluded to

bear somewhat less strongly upon them. The medium latitude of Spain is about  $40^{\circ}$  N.—that of Cuba  $22^{\circ}$  N : giving a difference of only  $18^{\circ}$ . The medium latitude of England is about  $53^{\circ}$  N., that of Jamaica about  $18^{\circ}$  N. : giving a difference of  $35^{\circ}$ ; and the other British sugar colonies stretch from the latitude of Jamaica, in close succession, southwards to near the line.\* It would, however, be erroneous to associate the obvious inconveniences of climate, thus indicated, with a corresponding degree of insalubrity. The actual effect of the climate of the West Indies on the health of Europeans seems to vary much, and not to be governed, in any appreciable degree, by mere latitude. According to the returns of the mortality of the British troops stationed there during the twenty years 1817–36, confirmed, generally, by other evidence, the most unhealthy of the Colonies are Tobago, Dominica, St. Lucia, and Jamaica; and the least so, Antigua, Montserrat,

\* But as it is well known that latitude is only a rough indication of the thermal conditions of climate, it may be worth while to compare the countries mentioned with reference to actual observations. According to the temperature tables compiled by Professor Dove, and published in the transactions of the British Association for 1847 (p. 273 *et seq.*) the mean annual temperature of London is  $50^{\circ}83$  Fahrenheit; and that of Kingston, Jamaica,  $78^{\circ}77$ , of St. Kitts  $81^{\circ}27$ , and of Demerara  $80^{\circ}71$ . Schomburgk states that of Barbadoes at  $81^{\circ}32$ . This gives a difference between the annual mean of London, and the average annual mean of these four colonies, of about  $30^{\circ}$ . Dove states the annual mean of Madrid at  $58^{\circ}16$ ; and that of Havannah at  $77^{\circ}17$ , a difference of only  $19^{\circ}$ . With reference to the effect of temperance on the cultivation of sugar, there is much force in the following passage from the *Edinburgh Review*, for April, 1849, “This plant (sugar), according to Humboldt, will thrive where the mean temperature is from  $64^{\circ}$  to  $67^{\circ}$ . It may be cultivated with advantage where this mean is not lower than  $67^{\circ}$  or  $68^{\circ}$ , but it thrives best where the mean temperature is  $76^{\circ}$  or  $77^{\circ}$ . Other things being equal, therefore, those countries which enjoy the latter mean temperature will ultimately beat all others out of the market. Now the map of isothermal lines shows that Southern Spain enjoys a mean temperature of  $64^{\circ}$  to  $67^{\circ}$ ; it has long ceased, therefore, to supply sugar to foreign markets. Northern Africa is a little below  $70^{\circ}$ , and the Canary Islands is a little above  $70^{\circ}$ , and the sugar culture has, in consequence, also forsaken them. Barbadoes, Jamaica, Demerara, and Surinam, have all a mean temperature which exceeds  $77^{\circ}$ —the most favourable degree of warmth. But Cuba, and the more favoured parts of North-eastern Brazil, about Pernambuco, enjoy the precise temperature which is most propitious to this special crop. *All other things being equal*, therefore, these countries—provided only that they can supply the demand—must ultimately drive the other sugar producers we have named out of the markets of the world.”

the Virgin Isles, and Barbadoes: the climate of those last named being, apparently, not much less favourable to the health of white men than that of England; while in the former the average annual mortality per 1,000 was three and four times as great.

It is impossible here to enter, to any good purpose, upon the question of the comparative value of free and slave labour, which seems to lie at the root of the competition now instituted between the British and Spanish colonies. Nor would the necessary limits of this paper admit even of an attempt adequately to enumerate the various considerations which must enter into any just estimate of the advantages and disadvantages to West Indian commerce arising from time to time, during the twenty years in view, from the legislative restrictions of the parent country. The abolition of slavery, however, as a specific act of paramount importance, seems to demand particular notice; especially as it was accompanied by the payment of a large sum from the imperial treasury by way of compensation, which, as a material modification of the capital of the proprietors, may also be supposed to have had a considerable effect on their commercial operations. The abolition of slavery (from August 1, 1834) was effected by the Act 3 and 4 Will. IV. c. 73: children under six years of age being declared free at once; the prædial slaves, or those employed in agriculture, to become apprentices until August 1, 1838, and the non-prædial till August 1, 1840. The legislature of Antigua declared the slaves in that island entirely free from August 1, 1834; and, ultimately, the prædial labourers, with the rest, were freed on August 1, 1838. The number of slaves for whom compensation was allowed, the average value per head, and the amount awarded to each of these colonies, are stated in the table on the next page.

The commercial effect of the payment of the compensation money may be assumed to have been important from a comparison of its amount with the annual value of the

	No. of Slaves.	Average value of a slave between 1822 and 1830.	Sum awarded.
		£ s. d.	£
Jamaica .....	311,692	44 15 2	6,161,927
Barbadoes .....	82,807	47 1 3	1,721,345
<i>Windward Islands.</i>			
Trinidad .....	22,359	105 4 5	1,039,119
Grenada .....	23,536	59 6 0	616,444
St. Vincent .....	22,997	58 6 8	592,508
St. Lucia .....	13,348	56 18 7	335,627
Tobago.....	11,621	45 12 0	234,064
	93,861	—	2,817,762

	No. of Slaves.	Average value of a Slave between 1822 and 1830.	Sum awarded.
		£ s. d.	£
<i>Leeward Islands.</i>			
Antigua .....	29,537	32 12 10	425,866
St. Kitts .....	20,660	36 6 10	331,630
Dominica .....	14,384	43 8 7	275,923
Nevis .....	8,722	39 3 11	151,007
Virgin Isles .....	5,192	31 16 1	72,940
Montserrat .....	6,355	36 17 10	103,558
	84,850		£1,360,924
British Guiana...	84,915	114 11 5 (b)	4,297,117
Totals for the Sugar Colonies.....	658,125		£16,359,075
Honduras.....	1,920	120 4 7	101,958
Bahamas .....	9,705	29 8 9	128,340
Totals for all the West Indian Colonies...	669,750		£15,589,373

(b) The very great difference in the sale-value of slaves observable in the different colonies previous to emancipation was chiefly the result of a law passed for the registration of slaves, and which forbade their transfer from one colony to another—a measure framed in a beneficent spirit, but the wisdom of which was very questionable. In the Bahamas, where the slave population was redundant, labour was necessarily cheap, and the value of those by whom it must be performed was low. In Guiana, on the other hand, and in Trinidad, where there was an abundance of fertile land to be reclaimed, the number of labourers was quite inadequate, and their value proportionally high. There would have been great advantage to the owners, and, under proper regulations, no hardship upon

exports of these colonies, as before stated, during the five years 1832-36.

	Exports. Average annual value, 1832-36.	Compensation Money awarded in July, 1835.
Jamaica .....	£2,975,260	£6,161,927
Barbadoes .....	621,608*	1,721,345
Windward Islands .....	1,165,109	2,817,762
Leeward Islands .....	597,461	1,360,924
British Guiana.....	1,853,305	4,297,117
Honduras .....	294,464	101,958
Bahamas .....	89,190	128,340
	<u>£7,596,397</u>	<u>£16,589,373</u>

The changes made in the duties levied on the importation of the sugar of the West Indian Colonies into the United Kingdom will be considered in dealing with Mauritius—a comparative view being in some degree requisite to render obvious the effect of these changes.

Besides the Sugar Colonies, there are, in the West Indian Group, the Bahamas and Honduras. The trade of the former has but little importance.

The Bahamas may be described as a group of islands, several hundreds in number, composed chiefly of coral rocks, and few of them inhabited, extending some 700 miles, N.W. and S.E. from the Coast of Florida to that of Hayti—between 21° and 27° N. lat. Chief export, salt. A large number of the inhabitants are employed in cruising about in flat-bottomed sloops, rescuing vessels endangered (or saving

the negroes, to have removed them from places where their labour was not needed to colonies where it could be profitably employed.—Porter, "Progress of the Nation," 1847, 812.

\* This amount is doubtless somewhat less than it would have been under ordinary circumstances, in consequence of the hurricane of 1831, the most destructive ever sustained in Barbadoes. It is said that 2,500 persons were killed; and that the pecuniary loss reached an aggregate of £2,500,000 sterling. See McCulloch's *Geographical Dictionary*, vol. i. p. 293; and Schomburgk's "History of Barbadoes," p. 52, *et seq.*

their crews and cargoes when wrecked) in the intricate channels through these islands which form the principal passage between the Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico. They also carry on a part of the transit trade between the West India Islands and the United States, and the North American Colonies.—See McCulloch's Geographical Dictionary, art. "Bahamas."

Honduras is little more than a coast settlement for facilitating the cutting and exportation of mahogany and logwood from the forests which cover the eastern coast of Central America between lat. 16° and 18° N.

Till near the close of the period in view, mahogany and logwood from this quarter were admitted for consumption in the United Kingdom under protective duties.

On *Mahogany*, the import duties were, from 1826 to 1831:—

	£	s.	d.	
Of Bermuda or the Bahamas, or imported directly from the Bay of Honduras .....	2	10	0	per ton.
Imported from Jamaica .....	4	0	0	"
Otherwise imported .....	7	0	0	"
From 1832 to 1838:—				
Of Bermuda, &c., &c. ....	1	10	0	"
From any other British possession .....	4	0	0	"
Otherwise imported .....	7	10	0	"
From July 5, 1838, the duty on Foreign was reduced to £5 per ton.				
From July 9, 1842, the duties were reduced to—				
Colonial .....	0	5	0	"
Foreign .....	1	0	0	"
And from March 19, 1844, both duties were repealed.				

The quantity of mahogany imported from the British West Indies into the United Kingdom, in the three years 1827–28–29, was 43,360 tons: giving an annual average of 14,453 tons. In the same years the whole quantity retained for home consumption was 54,520 tons, or an annual average of 18,173 tons. The protection, therefore, was effective in increasing the general price to the consumer; and, like the similar duties on Canadian timber, gave a preference, in the market, to an

inferior article.\* In 1844-45-46 the quantities imported from the British West Indies were—

In 1844 .....	17,423 tons.
1845 .....	21,357 „
1846 .....	24,071 „
Average .....	<u>20,950 „</u>

So the supply increased after the total loss of protection.

The quantity retained for consumption in the United Kingdom after the abolition of the import duties cannot be ascertained; but in 1842-43-44 the aggregate was 64,813 tons: the supply from the British West Indies in the same period being 45,233 tons. The total quantity imported, colonial and foreign, was, in 1845, 38,350 tons; and in 1846, 41,689 tons. The chief competitors with our own Colonies in the supply of the British market, hitherto, have been Hayti and Cuba.

On *Logwood*, the import duties were, from 1825 to 1842:—

	£	s.	d.	
Colonial .....	0	3	0	per ton.
Foreign .....	0	4	6	„
From July 9, 1842, was imposed an uniform duty of.....	0	2	0	„
And from March 19, 1845, the duty was abolished.				

The quantity of logwood imported from the British West Indies into the United Kingdom in the three years 1827-28-29 was 24,080 tons: giving an annual average of 8,026 tons. In the same years the quantity retained for home consumption

\* That which is imported from the islands is called Spanish mahogany; it is not so large as that from Honduras, being generally in logs from 20 to 26 inches square and 10 feet long, while the latter is usually from 2 to 4 feet square, and 12 or 14 feet long, but some logs are much larger. . . . Like the Pine tribe, the timber is best on dry rocky soils, or in exposed situations. That which is most accessible at Honduras, grows upon moist low lands, and is, generally speaking, decidedly inferior to that brought from Cuba and Hayti; being soft, coarse, and spongy; while the other is close-grained and hard, of a darker colour, and sometimes strongly figured. Honduras mahogany has, however, the advantage of holding glue admirably well; and is, for this reason, frequently used as a ground on which to lay veneers of the finer sorts.—McCulloch's Commercial Dictionary, art. "Mahogany."

was 25,308 tons, or an annual average of 8,436 tons. In subsequent years the excess of the home consumption over the colonial supply increased; and during the first sixteen years of the twenty now in view, while the protective duty was continued, was always sufficient to render the additional duty effective upon the price. In 1844-45-46, the quantities imported from the British West Indies were--

In 1844 .....	11,013 tons.
1845 .....	9,219 „
1846 .....	7,335 „
Average .....	<u>9,555 „</u>

The quantity retained for consumption in the United Kingdom, after the abolition of the import duty, cannot be ascertained; but in the three years 1842-43-44 the aggregate was 56,916 tons, the supply from the British Colonies in the same period being only 25,099 tons. The whole quantity imported, colonial and foreign, was, in 1845, 23,020 tons, and in 1846, 28,105 tons; showing a rapid increase after the abolition of the duty. Mexico and Hayti have, hitherto, been the chief competitors with our own Colonies in the supply of the British market.

The West Indian Group has also long afforded to our merchants certain facilities for carrying on the trade between England and some neighbouring countries; and so may be regarded as the medium of a transit trade, considerable in the earlier years of the period now in view, and not yet extinguished. In particular, as depôts for British manufactures intended for the supply of the South American continent, the position of the West Indian Colonies has been changing ever since the Spanish American States achieved their independence (in the four or five years immediately preceding 1827) and thus became open to a legitimate, as before they were

approachable only by a contraband trade. Had the continental colonies of Spain, like those of England forty years before, settled down to the pursuits of peace as soon as their independence was secured, it is manifest that the indirect trade previously carried on with the United Kingdom would much more rapidly have assumed a direct character, to the profit of both parties. But, as is well known, their civil contentions have, down even to the present day, not only much checked the development of their productive resources, but have also attached considerable risk to the embarkation of capital in the arrangements necessary to a direct trade. Hence the change has been so slow that, at the end of a quarter of a century, the British West Indian Colonies still retain a remnant of the transit trade. The precise extent of this trade is difficult to ascertain. But as some portion of the British produce exported to these colonies has hitherto, undoubtedly, been re-exported, and the portion so disposed of is known to have been diminishing during the period now in view, it is obvious that the extent of the trade referred to is a material consideration in any estimate of the commercial progress of these colonies from returns either of their aggregate exports and imports, or of their trade with this country. I am not aware of the existence in England of means by which the distinction here suggested may be drawn with any degree of certainty;\* but the following tables may aid the conception of a general idea sufficiently accurate to correct some of the fallacies occasionally current in discussions of the subject.

\* The reader may, however, refer, with advantage, to the Commons, Sessional Paper No. 679 of 1846, containing detailed returns of exports and imports into and from the West Indian Colonies from 1835 to 1844. For instance, it is stated, at page 325 of this return, that the value of the "British cotton manufactures" re-exported from Jamaica to Columbia, and to the foreign West Indies, in 1835-36-37 and in 1842-43-44, was as follows:—

In 1835.....	£413,250	In 1842.....	£216,140
1836.....	251,954	1843.....	208,132
1837.....	240,317	1844.....	142,836
Average .....	<u>£301,840</u>	Average .....	<u>£189,036</u>

## DECLARED VALUE OF BRITISH PRODUCE EXPORTED TO—

Year.	Cuba.	Columbia.	Peru.	Chili.	Years.	Cuba.	Columbia.	Peru.	Chili.
	£	£	£	£		£	£	£	£
1827	378,768	213,972	228,466	400,134	1837	599,145	170,451	476,374	625,545
1828	270,444	261,113	374,615	709,371	1838	651,652	174,338	412,195	413,647
1829	371,618	232,703	300,171	818,950	1839	458,145	267,112	635,058	1,103,073
1830	371,670	216,751	368,469	540,626	1840	514,782	359,743	799,991	1,334,873
1831	366,561	248,250	409,003	651,617	1841	592,546	158,972	536,046	438,090
Averages	£351,812	£234,557	£336,144	£624,139	Averages	£563,252	£226,123	£571,932	£783,045
1832	247,213	283,568	275,611	708,193	1842	366,253	231,711	684,313	950,466
1833	319,751	121,826	387,524	816,817	1843	624,871	378,521	659,961	938,959
1834	530,802	199,996	299,235	896,221	1844	657,214	264,688	658,380	807,633
1835	437,964	132,242	441,324	606,176	1845	695,479	390,149	878,708	1,077,615
1836	612,803	185,172	606,332	861,903	1846	844,112	472,007	820,535	959,322
Averages	£429,706	£184,560	£402,005	£777,862	Averages	£637,565	£347,415	£740,179	£946,799

[Vide Sessional Paper, No. 656, of 1847.]

## SUMMARY.

	Quinquennial Averages.			
	1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
	£	£	£	£
Cuba .....	351,812	429,706	563,252	637,565
Columbia .....	234,557	184,560	226,123	347,415
Peru .....	336,144	402,005	571,932	740,179
Chili .....	624,139	777,862	783,045	946,799
	1,546,652	1,794,133	2,144,352	2,671,958
Average exports to the British West Indian Colonies in the same periods .....	3,182,681	2,938,282	3,383,151	2,644,028
General aggregate .....	4,729,333	4,732,415	5,527,503	5,315,986

Thus—though the diminution of the exports to the British West Indies be traceable mainly to internal causes, it is at least highly probable that a portion of it, especially in the last quinquennial period, is due to an extension of the direct trade with South America.

The following table confirms the general inference that the commerce of the West Indian Group has declined during the latter half of the period in view—showing that though the *number* of vessels belonging to these colonies has increased, their average *size*, and their *aggregate tonnage*, has decreased considerably.

## SHIPPING REGISTERED AS BELONGING TO THE WEST INDIAN COLONIES.

	1836 (a)			1846 (b)		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Average size of Vessels.	Vessels.	Tons.	Average size of Vessels.
Bahamas .....	140	4,181	29	157	3,637	23
Jamaica .....	120	5,584	46	98	3,411	34
Leeward Islands .....	175	3,047	17	192	2,180	11
Windward Islands .....	145	6,442	45	159	4,679	23
Barbadoes .....	34	1,477	43	42	1,666	39
British Guiana .....	50	2,491	49	79	3,216	40
	664	23,222	34	727	18,789	25

## THE AFRICAN GROUP,

as here formed, consists of the settlements on the Western Coast, and the Cape Colony. The former are between the tropics, and are little more than trading stations—the latter lies a few degrees south of the tropics (in the same latitude as New South Wales) and is a colony, properly so-called. Excepting their situation on the same continent, there is no reason for classing them together.

## THE COAST SETTLEMENTS.

Of these there is little to be said, except to mark their positions.

Of the whole western coast-line of Africa—extending about 7,000 miles—the first 500, it will be remembered, are occupied by the Atlantic frontier of Morocco, and about the next 1,000 are closely backed by the great desert, along the south-western extremity of which flows the river Senegal, the most northerly of the great streams falling into the sea from this coast.\* The

(a) Revenue Tables, 1838, p. 43.

(b) Ibid., 1846, p. 51.

\* The country between the Senegal and Gambia rivers has long been the principal seat of the French settlements on this coast, and the source of the *Gun Senegal*. During the last war we held these settlements, as conquests. In 1814 we restored them; but reserved right to settle on the Gambia. Our present

next of these rivers, at a further distance of about 200 miles, is the Gambia (lat.  $13^{\circ} 13' N.$ ), about nine miles wide at the mouth; and at the entrance of the river on St. Mary's Island, near the mainland, on the south side, is Bathurst, the most northerly of the English settlements. About 300 miles up the river is another settlement, on MacCarthy's Island; and between these are several others.

About 500 miles (by the coast) further south is the settlement of Sierra Leone: a mountainous but fertile peninsula (between the rivers Sierra Leone and Camaranca) about 18 miles by 12. This settlement was formed in 1786, with free negroes, and chiefly at the instance of Granville Sharp. The river Sierra Leone appears to be merely an estuary, about seven miles wide, into which a river debouches. It is said to be easy of entrance. On the south side of the entrance is a good bay, on which Freetown, the centre of the settlement, is built. On the neighbouring coasts are several branch settlements, or factories: the principal being on the (three) Isles de Los, about 60 miles north of Sierra Leone, and five or six from the coast.

The third, and most southerly, of the coast settlements is that of which Cape Coast Castle (lat.  $5^{\circ} 6' N.$ ) is the centre—having the branch settlement of Anamaboe at a distance of about 10 miles, and Accra of about 70 miles, to the east; and Dix Cove about 50 miles to the west.

From Sierra Leone to Cape Coast is about 700 miles. From one extremity to the other, therefore, these settlements include between them about 1,200 miles of coast, or about one-sixth of the entire coast line from Tangier to Cape Town.

settlements were then formed; and gave us a part of the gun trade; which, however, has not been retained without several disputes with the French settlers. In lat.  $18^{\circ} 6' N.$  (about 160 miles north of the Senegal) is the Moorish coast-town of Portendic, in the gum-trade of which we participate with France, under treaty. Claims for losses sustained by an alleged violation of our treaty rights by France in 1834–35 have recently been discussed in the House of Commons. See Sessional Paper, No. 117 of 1843; also a volume of papers presented to Parliament in 1845.

The official returns of the population of the settlements on the Gambia relate only to St. Mary's and MacCarthy's Islands. The area of St. Mary's is said to be five square miles; and it contained in 1833: Whites, 36 (including five females); blacks, 2,704—total, 2,740. And in 1846: Whites, 50 (including seven females); blacks, 3,639—total, 3,689. The area of MacCarthy's Island is said to be seven square miles; and the last account of its population is dated 1836, when it contained seven whites (all males) and 1,155 blacks. The chief article of trade is the gum Senegal.

The population of Sierra Leone was estimated by the Governor, in May, 1847, at 45,000.\*

The chief imports are, from Great Britain, cotton manufactures, hardwares, spirits, &c.; from the United States, tobacco, lumber, and coarse cottons; from the Hanse Towns, cottons and miscellaneous articles; and from Portugal, some coarse pottery. The exports are, teak and other timber, palm oil, ground-nuts (as yielding an oil now much in demand for lubricating machinery), ginger, pepper, arrow-root, and other tropical produce most readily raised by a people nearly destitute of capital and agricultural skill.† But it appears that the official accounts are far from presenting the true quantities or values of either the imports or the exports—that, as to the *imports*, large quantities of goods are taken to factories on the neighbouring rivers in order to escape the custom house at Sierra Leone; and, as to the *exports*, that these are commonly collected from such factories, brought into the harbour of Sierra Leone, and there trans-shipped into outward-bound vessels: so that the true amount of the imports of the colony is greater, and of the exports less, than the amounts returned.‡

\* B.B. (printed) 1846, p. 133. See also a very full report on the state of the Settlement by Acting-Governor Pine (dated October 27, 1848) in B.B. (printed) 1847, p. 187.

† B.B. (printed) 1847, p. 187.

‡ B.B. (printed) 1846, pp. 141–2.

It is also to be observed that of one valuable article exported from these African settlements—gold dust—no account is taken, either there or at home. It was estimated, for Sierra Leone, in the year 1847, at a value of from £16,000 to £20,000.

Of the population of the territory more or less distinctly attached to Cape Coast and the neighbouring settlements (estimated in 1847 at 6,000 square miles) no census has ever been made. The latest estimate (December, 1847) gives a total of 275,000: the number of whites at Cape Coast being 40, including seven females. The trade much resembles that of Sierra Leone. The Governor, in his last report, states that the population has much increased of late years, that the habits of the people have improved, and that they are rapidly increasing their consumption of furniture and clothing of European manufacture.\*

The following is a summary of the official returns comprised in the appended tables. It applies only to Sierra Leone and Gambia; there being no returns from the Cape Coast settlements.

## QUINQUENNIAL AVERAGES.

	1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
Imports, £	136,589	158,815	196,396	201,478
Exports, £	116,570	157,059	207,040	250,330
Shipping inwards, tons .....	26,179	30,683	31,647	39,686
„ outwards, „ .....	25,183	30,224	31,194	39,965

After making due allowance for the defective nature of the returns, the steady increase here exhibited of the trade brought under official cognisance may be regarded as affording some evidence of considerable and regular progress in the extent of the entire commerce of the Coast settlements.

\* B.B. (printed) 1847, p. 203.

As these settlements have also facilitated the operations for suppressing the slave trade, the most lucrative branch of the native commerce, I may state the number of slaves captured, and landed alive, on which bounty has been paid to the captors by the British Government during the period in view.

In 1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
5,393	2,325	8,652	1,332
2,928	3,169	4,384	5,520
5,091	2,984	7,188	3,219
7,666	6,899	2,864	4,930
3,308	5,748	5,139	2,086
<u>24,386</u>	<u>21,125</u>	<u>27,727</u>	<u>17,087</u>

Total, 90,325. Bounty paid, £527,606.

The greater number were landed at Sierra Leone, and located there. For further particulars, see S.P. 116, of 1847.

The following table affords a comparative view, for the years 1836 and 1846, of the shipping registered as belonging to the Gambia and Sierra Leone settlements. There are no returns of shipping belonging to the settlements about Cape Coast.

	Bathurst (Gambia.)			Sierra Leone.		
	Number of Ships.	Aggregate Tonnage.	Average Size.	Number of Ships.	Aggregate Tonnage.	Average Size.
In 1836	17	959	Tons. 56	15	1,654	Tons. 110
In 1846	52	1,922	37	13	693	53

R.T. 1838, p. 43—1846, p. 51.

#### THE CAPE COLONY,

at the southern extremity of the African continent, is stated to have (W. of the Keiskanna river) an area of about 130,000 square miles.

The colonial territory is divided by three ranges of moun-

tains into as many irregular belt-like plateaus or terraces, following, generally, the line of the coast. The lowest and most fertile of these, next the coast, varies from 20 to 60 miles in width, and has a comparatively mild and equable climate. The surface of the next more elevated has about the same mean width, but is more rugged, less fertile, and has a less favourable climate. The third is said to lie at a mean elevation above the sea of about 3,000 feet; and its soil and climate render it, for the most part, an unprofitable desert. Generally, the most level and fertile districts are in the south and east; the least so in the north and west of the colony. The harbours are few for the length of coast; and the interior communications have hitherto been rendered difficult by the extreme ruggedness of the greater part of the country, the small number of the population scattered over its surface, and the expense of constructing permanent roads. Since 1844 several new lines of road have been constructed by the government through the most fertile and promising districts.

It is estimated that about two-fifths of the whole area of the colony are unfit for either agricultural or pastoral purposes; and the proportion well adapted for agriculture is said to be small. The whole quantity of land granted in the colony, up to the 31st of December, 1846, was 41,391,377 acres; being about half of the entire area, or five-sixths of what is supposed to be capable of use.\*

In the B.B. returns the total population is stated to have been, in 1823, 116,205; of which there were returned as Christians (white and free coloured) 48,699, free blacks 32,538, and negro apprentices and slaves 34,968. In 1836 the total was stated to be 150,110: comprising 114,014 free persons, white and coloured; and 36,096 apprentices. In the B.B. for 1847 the total population is stated at 169,963; and this is divided into 71,113 white, and 75,977 coloured. But this

\* B.B. (printed) 1846, p. 165.

division leaves more than 21,000 of the total unaccounted for. If the returns of sex are to be relied upon, the females were to the males, in 1823 as 85 to 100; in 1836 as 95 to 100; and in 1847 as 93 to 100. The large proportion of Dutch among the white inhabitants is roughly marked by a return obtained in 1846 of the number of persons attached to Christian congregations of the chief religious denominations in the colony. The whole number returned was 112,058: of which there were whites 70,310; and of these no less than 51,848 belonged to the Dutch Reformed Church.\*

It would appear that the population of the Cape was but little affected by immigration from Europe during the period in view. The returns available for the years 1841 to 1844 inclusive relate only to the arrivals at Port Elizabeth; and these state the total number of immigrants to have been in 1841, 55; in 1842, 184; in 1843, 367; and in 1844, 270. By the Customs' returns the number of emigrants from the United Kingdom to the Cape were, in 1845, 496; in 1846, 545; and in 1847, 445.†

The number of slaves upon the colonial register, when the Act of Emancipation passed, was 38,427. The average value of a slave during the years 1822-30 was ascertained to have been £73 9s. 11d. And the amount of compensation awarded was £1,247,401.

The following is a summary of the appended tables referring to the Cape Colony.

\* The return will be found in the B.B. (printed) for 1846, p. 159. There has, hitherto, been but little communication between the English and the Dutch settlers of the interior. This has been attributed to dislike of the English by the Dutch; but there are more obvious causes in the scattered condition of the population, the small number of English settled in the interior, the want of roads, and the almost universal inability of the Dutch farmers to speak the English language. That the difficulty of governing and improving the colony has been much increased by this estrangement cannot be doubted. See Bunbury's "Journal of a Residence at the Cape of Good Hope," 1848, pp. 85, 182, 234. The Dutch inhabitants have little intercourse with Europe; and what they have is chiefly with Holland.

† Eighth Report of the Land and Emigration Commissioners, p. 32.

## QUINQUENNIAL AVERAGES.

	1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
Imports, £	373,775	508,550	1,019,188	837,661
Exports, (a) £	273,285	340,204	619,808	419,516
Shipping inwards, tons.....	67,997	107,894	156,269	166,387
„ outwards, „ .....	65,399	106,071	166,387	160,991

This colony has a great advantage in its position in the track of all the European trade with India; and this has already undoubtedly given it a value much beyond what is due to its soil and climate alone.

The excess of both imports and exports apparent in the third period (1837-41) is traceable to the operation of the British import duties on coffee; and does not, properly speaking, indicate any increase of the commerce of the Cape. From September, 1835, to July, 1842, we levied three rates of import duty on coffee: 1. If grown in a British colony, 6d. per lb. 2. If brought from (though not the growth of) any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, 9d.; and 3. Otherwise imported, 1s. 3d. per lb. The difference between the second and third of these duties was found more than sufficient to cover the cost of sending coffee grown in Brazil, Cuba, Java, and elsewhere, into British territories under the charter, for trans-shipment to Great Britain; and the Cape was selected as the most convenient part of these territories. The operation of the duties upon the imports from the Cape is seen in the following statement of

(a) The value of the exports from this colony falls greatly short of that of its imports, the balance being provided by bills of exchange drawn by the commissariat department at the Cape upon the Lords of the Treasury, to meet the expenditure incurred on account of the government. The produce of the Cape does not offer that variety of articles from which large cargoes can be assorted for the markets either of Europe or of India. Some part of the exports at present made consists of the produce of India and China. Porter, "Progress of the Nations," 1847, p. 781.

the quantities of coffee imported thence into the United Kingdom between 1835 and 1843.

In 1835 .....	338 lbs.	In 1839 .....	15,126,670 lbs.
1836 .....	32,540 „	1840 .....	27,882,978 „
1837 .....	742 „	1841 .....	11,633,259 „
1838 .....	506,874 „	1842 .....	1,572,027 „
In 1843 .....	540 lbs.*		

The chief exports of the colony are *wine* and *wool*, with some hides, tallow, and salted beef, goat-skins, and corn and butter. The provisions are sent chiefly to Mauritius, and to South America. The exports of wool are increasing rapidly—those of wine decreasing. Both have been, and the latter still is, encouraged by protective duties in this country.

During the five years, 1827–31, the wine of the Cape paid, on importation into the United Kingdom, a duty of 2s. 5d. per gallon, French wines paying 7s. 10d., and other sorts 4s. 10d. per gallon. In the five years, 1842–46, the duties were—on Cape wine 2s. 9d., and on all other sorts 5s. 6d. per gallon. The quantities of Cape wine imported in each of the two periods sufficiently prove that the protection has not been sufficient to maintain the growth.

*Cape Wine Imported.*

In 1827 .....	744,129 gallons	In 1842 .....	303,223 gallons
1828 .....	758,916 „	1843 .....	116,570 „
1829 .....	967,363 „	1844 .....	423,336 „
1830 .....	544,982 „	1845 .....	446,714 „
1831 .....	428,154 „	1846 .....	185,062 „
Average .....	<u>688,708</u> „	Average .....	<u>294,981</u> „

A similar comparison touching the exports of wool affords a very different result. During the five years, 1827–31, colonial wool was imported free of duty; but foreign was taxed, if of the value of 1s. per lb., 1d., and if not of that value,  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb. The same arrangement existed in 1842–46, down to June, 1844; but after that date the duty on foreign wool was abolished.

\* Revenue Tables for each year.

*Wool Imported from the Cape.*

	lbs.		lbs.
In 1827 .....	44,441	In 1842 .....	1,265,768
1828 .....	29,326	1843 .....	1,728,453
1829 .....	37,619	1844 .....	2,197,143
1830 .....	33,407	1845 .....	3,512,924
1831 .....	47,868	1846 .....	2,958,457
Average.....	<u>38,552</u>	Average.....	<u>2,332,549</u>

The imports consist chiefly of tropical produce, and of materials for clothing, earthenware, hardwares, and soap and candles.

The shipping registered as belonging to the Cape Colony has always been of small amount; but has increased considerably of late years. The following comparative statement is taken from the Revenue Tables for 1838 (p. 43) and for 1846 (p. 51).

	Ships.	Aggregate Tonnage.	Average size. Tons.
In 1836 .....	16	1,555	97
In 1846 .....	34	4,089	120

## THE EAST INDIAN GROUP

## MAURITIUS,

on account of its comparative proximity to Africa, is classed by geographers with that continent. Commercially, and politically, it shares much of the character of the West Indies; and it may be regarded as an appendage to Hindoostan, on the ground that about one-third of its population during the last ten years have been migratory natives of that country, and almost entirely dependent upon their native soil for food.

Mauritius lies about 500 miles E. of Madagascar, and 90 N.E. of Bourbon; and forms an irregular oval about 36 miles long, with an average width of 22. It may be compared with Jamaica, as having a similar physical aspect—a low, level, alluvial coast territory, watered by numerous streams from a mountainous interior—and being about as far S. as that island is N. of the Equator. Its area is said to be

about 500,000 acres, therefore, about one-tenth of that of Jamaica, or four times that of the Isle of Wight. Its climate, however, contrasts with that of Jamaica, as being (according to Col. Tulloch) unfavourable to the negro constitution; while it does not appear to have any decidedly evil influence on that of Europeans. Like the West Indian islands, it may be regarded as a sugar-farm, the inhabitants of which import the greater part of their food—obtaining animal food from Madagascar and the Cape, and grain, chiefly rice, from India. It differs from its Western competitors chiefly in its much more recent devotion to sugar culture, and in the greater command of free labour resulting from its proximity to India. The white inhabitants are chiefly French; and, on the strength of national predilection, France still retains a large share of the trade of the island.

The population of Mauritius, by a census taken in 1827, appeared to be 93,631, viz.: white 8,111, and coloured 85,520. Another census, in 1832, gave a total of only 89,616, the whites not being distinguished. By the census of 1836 the total appears to have been 89,207; but this is stated to include 4,337 Indian labourers (immigrants) and 670 European aliens. In the Blue Book for 1845 the population is stated as follows:—

Colonial population .....	Males	76,020	
	Females	52,626	
			128,646
Immigrants—Natives of India .....	Adult Males	38,982	
	Females	6,127	
	Children	2,884	
			47,993
Immigrants—Natives of China and the Malay Coast ...	Males	561	
	Females	—	
			561
„ „ Madagascar .....	Males	157	
	Females	—	
			157
			177,357
Aliens and resident strangers, sex not distinguished .....			2,163
			179,520

Thus it would seem that among the 174,473 persons whose sex is distinguished, there were only 51 females to every 100 males; a disproportion rather greater than that existing in New South Wales.

Immediately on the abolition of slavery in 1835, the planters began to import coolies from India. Between 1834 and 1839 the whole number introduced was 25,468, of whom 24,566 were male labourers. In 1839 this immigration was stopped by the Government, as tending, substantially, to a renewal of some of the evils of slavery.\* In 1843 (under an Order in Council, dated January 15, 1842), this immigration was resumed, under regulations; and down to November 30, 1847, the numbers introduced were as follows:—

	Adults.		Children.	Total.
	Males.	Females.		
In 1843 .....	26,888	3,373	997	31,258
1844 .....	11,496	1,803	853	14,152
1845 .....	7,677	1,462	1,146	10,285
1846 .....	4,847	1,150	792	6,789
1847 to 30th November .....	4,403	518	288	5,209
	55,311	8,306	4,076	67,693

It is supposed that few, if any, of the immigrants, before 1843, remained in the colony in 1847. On deducting from the total number of immigrants between 1843 and 1847, the number of deaths (6,498) and of departures (6,866) it would appear that the immigrants in the colony in 1847 numbered about 55,000, with not more than 17 females to 100 males. [For further particulars, see the Eighth General Report of the Colonial Land Emigration Commissioners, 1848.]

The extent to which the population of the island has, of late years, been dependent upon foreign supplies for subsistence may be inferred from the following statement of the quantity of rice imported in each year since 1834.

\* For a short history of these operations, see the Sixth General Report of the Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners, p. 20.

	lbs.		lbs.
1835 .....	34,019,070	1841 .....	79,099,608
1836 .....	33,465,777	1842 .....	44,380,548
1837 .....	55,942,495	1843 .....	71,658,063
1838 .....	53,210,943	1844 .....	58,714,643
1839 .....	44,254,180	1845 .....	59,854,363
1840 .....	46,555,374	1846 .....	88,424,896

The other provisions imported were, in 1844 (which did not differ materially from the average of previous years), bacon and hams, 1,002 cwts.; beef and pork, 16,951 cwts.; beer and ale, 135,142 gallons; butter and ghee, 6,398 cwts.; cheese, 2,838 cwts.; wheat and other grain, besides rice, 303,704 bushels; flour and meal, 18,118 barrels; fish, cured, 35,641 cwts., 1,400 barrels, and 86 boxes; and fruit to the value of £2,621—which, added to the rice imported in the same year, cannot be estimated at less than 85,000,000 lbs. of solid food; giving to a population of 180,000 about 472 lbs. per head per annum, or  $1\frac{1}{3}$  lbs. per day. (S.P. 696, 1847.)

The following is a summary of the contents of the appended tables, as to Mauritius:—

QUINQUENNIAL AVERAGES.

	1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
Imports, £	748,150	673,740	1,090,884	1,041,162
Exports, £	658,461	739,057	804,807	1,113,167
Shipping inwards, tons ...	90,249	76,468	109,619	123,341
„ outwards, „ ...	87,274	74,445	100,975	121,280

During the earlier years of the period in view, Mauritius was receiving large supplies of capital from without, and in the later years a numerous immigrant population.

The exports of Mauritius consist almost entirely of sugar—the imports are principally food, as stated above, manufactured articles of various kinds from England and France, and bags (for packing the sugar) from Bourbon and from India.

The period referred to by the present paper has been in many respects an eventful one for the commerce of Mauritius.

Before 1825 the sugar of this island was classed in the British tariff with that of the East Indies, and paid an import duty of 37s. per cwt.—that of the West Indies paying only 27s. In 1825 Mauritius was placed in the same class with the West Indies; and large investments of British capital in the growth of sugar in the island immediately followed. The first ventures proving eminently successful, the trade expanded rapidly, and assumed a speculative character. Then the agitation attending the discussion of the slavery question, followed by the payment of upwards of £2,000,000 sterling as compensation for the slaves emancipated,\* and the introduction of large numbers of immigrants from India—the stoppage of this immigration, in 1839, on account of its abuse, after it had been going on for four or five years—its renewal in 1843—and finally the commercial crisis of 1847, which ruined the chief mercantile houses in this country connected with Mauritius, have successively disturbed the commerce of the colony, and given to it, throughout, an unhealthy and feverish aspect.†

The duties levied on importation into the United Kingdom of unrefined sugar from the West Indies and Mauritius, were, during the period in view :—

From 1825 to 1830, July 5th .....	£1	7	0	per cwt.
„ 1830, July 5th, to 1840, May 15th .....	1	4	0	„
„ 1840, May 15th, to 1845, March 14th (an addition of 5 per cent. made to cus- toms duties in general) .....	1	5	2½	„
„ 1845, March 14th, to the end of the period here in view :—				
If equal to “white clayed” ...	0	16	4	„
If not equal .....	0	14	0	„

From 1819 to 1830 the duty on East India sugar was £1 17s. 0d. per cwt. In 1830 it was reduced to £1 12s. 0d. ;

\* The number of slaves emancipated was 68,613. The average value of a slave in the eight years 1822–30 was found to have been £69 14s. 3d. And the amount of compensation awarded was £2,112,632; or nearly three times the average annual value of the exports in 1832–36.

† Much valuable information respecting the general condition of Mauritius, during the year 1847, will be found in the Sessional Paper No. 61 of 1848.

and in 1836 to £1 4s. 0d., as to such British possessions in the East Indies as should prohibit the importation of foreign sugar; the old duty remaining as to the rest. In 1840 the addition of 5 per cent. was applied to these in common with all other duties on sugar. And in 1845 the same reduction, and distinction of quality, were applied to East as to West Indian sugar; such of the former as should be imported from places not prohibiting the importation of foreign sugar being charged 21s. 9d. and 18s. 8d. in lieu of 16s. 4d. and 14s. as above.

The quantities of unrefined sugar imported into the United Kingdom and *retained for consumption* in each of the twenty years in view,\* were :—

1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.
1827.....3,539,860	1832.....3,879,808.	1837.....4,048,663	1842.....3,868,437
1828...3,879,250	1833.....3,766,405	1838.....4,021,240	1843.....4,028,307
1829.....3,809,706	1834.....3,928,556	1839.....3,830,390	1844.....4,129,443
1830.....4,057,224	1835.....4,022,841	1840.....3,594,407	1845...4,856,624
1831...4,076,251	1836.....3,593,137	1841.....4,057,878	1846.....5,220,248
Average 3,872,238	Average 3,838,149	Average 3,910,515	Average 4,420,611

And if the following statement † of the quantities imported from Mauritius be compared with the previous statement as to the West Indies, the extent to which the produce of the former has aided in making up the deficient supply from the latter will be at once apparent.

1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
cwts.	cwts.	cwts.	cwts.
1827...204,344	1832...541,770	1837...537,961	1842...689,335
1828...361,325	1833...529,352	1838...604,671	1843...476,923
1829...297,958	1834...555,860	1839...612,586	1844...540,620
1830...485,710	1835...558,237	1840...545,009	1845...716,173
1831...517,554	1836...497,303	1841...716,635	1846...845,198
Average 373,378	Average 536,524	Average 603,372	Average 653,649

\* S.P. 1848, 400.

† Ibid.

The following is a comparison of the shipping registered as belonging to Mauritius in 1836 and in 1846.

	Number of ships.	Aggregate tonnage.	Average size. Tons.
In 1836 .....	94 .....	7,898 .....	84
In 1846 .....	125 .....	10,020 .....	80

(R.T. 1838, p. 43—1846, p. 51.)

A valuable collection of documents illustrative of the condition of the labouring population of the British sugar colonies in the latter years of the period here in view, will be found in the Sessional Papers Nos. 642 of 1845, and 691 of 1846.

### CEYLON

may, perhaps, be justly regarded as the most important of our intertropical Colonies. Its *situation*, at the southern extremity of the peninsula of India (resembling that of Sicily with reference to Italy), near the centre of the Indian Ocean, and in the track of all the European trade through the straits of Malacca to the Eastern Archipelago and China—its *area*, nearly that of the mainland of Scotland\*—its *soil*, fertile and various in quality; and its *climate*, decidedly salubrious, for a tropical and partially cultivated country—combine to fix attention upon it as a fit site for plantations adapted to share the rapid progress of the British Colonies springing up on the extra-tropical coasts and islands of Australia.

The information we yet have as to the population of Ceylon, except in the maritime districts, is obviously imperfect: some parts of the interior being seldom visited by Europeans. A census taken in 1832 (B.B.) states the total population at 1,009,008—divided into 998,289 natives and colonists, and 10,719 aliens and resident strangers, chiefly immigrant labourers from India. The sexes are distinguished only as

\* The area of the island, as computed by the Surveyor General, in 1846, from a plan in which the coast line appeared to have been taken from a marine survey, is 24,700 square miles.—B.B.

to the former: the number of males being 524,052, and of females 474,237; or about 90 females to 100 males. The whites were said to be 6,367: the males being 3,213, and the females 3,154; showing 98 females to 100 males, and leading to the inference that the excess of males was almost entirely among the coloured population. In the B.B. for 1847 is an enumeration giving a total population of 1,507,326. Comparing this with the statement of 1832, there would appear to have been an increase of 49 per cent. in fifteen years, or at least twice what is probable, apart from immigration. It appears, however,\* that no census has actually been taken since 1843. The census of that year gave a total of 1,421,631; but it was believed to be imperfect. The statement made up (apparently by estimate) for 1847 gives 5,572 as the number of whites: the males being 2,942, and the females 2,630. The number of the coloured population is stated at 1,501,756: being, males 775,916, and females 725,840. Whence it would appear that the white population was smaller in 1847 than in 1832; and that among them there were (in (1847) only 89 females to 100 males; while the coloured population had 93 to 100.

The rapid extension of the coffee plantations of Ceylon, during the last eight or ten years of the period in view, has led to a large annual immigration of labourers from the neighbouring coasts of India. It is said to be the habit of the immigrants, generally, to remain in the island only a few months, and then to return home with their earnings. A few come by sea to Colombo; but the greater number cross by the imperfect isthmus between India and Ceylon called "Adam's Bridge."† The returns relating to this periodical immigration do not, however, afford very satisfactory data on which to estimate the addition thus made to the population. The following table is compiled from statements contained in

\* B.B. (printed) 1846, p. 199.

† Eighth General Report of the Emigration Commissioners, p. 80.

the Appendix (No. 26) to the Eighth General Report of the Land and Emigration Commissioners, pp. 80-81.

Years.	Arrived.				Departed.				
	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.	
1839	} From April,	2,432	188	99	2,719	1,956	161	85	2,202
1840		3,326	307	181	3,814	3,464	256	153	3,873
1841		4,523	363	164	5,050	4,243	274	117	4,634
1842		9,025	279	166	9,470	10,691	345	228	11,264
1843		6,298	162	248	6,708	18,977	694	482	20,153
1844		74,840	1,181	724	76,745	38,337	825	535	39,697
1845		72,526	698	177	73,401	24,623	145	36	24,804
1846		41,862	330	125	42,317	13,833	48	23	13,904
		214,832	3,508	1,884	220,224	116,124	2,748	1,659	120,531
Excess of Arrivals .....					98,708	760	225	99,693	

It will be observed that the arrivals, as here stated, were, in the five years, 1839-43, only 27,761, while the departures in the same period were 42,126; and that in the last three years, 1844-46, the arrivals were 192,463, and the departures only 78,405. It would appear that in the two years, 1842-43, the departures exceeded the arrivals by no less than 15,239; which, as the arrivals of the three preceding years had only exceeded the departures by 879 (a proportion scarcely larger than what might be attributed to mortality), suggests either that some large previous immigration had taken place, or that the returns are imperfect. I am inclined to believe that there is a material error in the statement of arrivals in 1843.

The following is a summary of the appended tables, as they relate to Ceylon :—

## QUINQUENNIAL AVERAGES.

	1827-31.	1832-36-	1837-41.	1842-46.
Imports, £	324,176	361,616	656,496	1,217,874
Exports, £	218,363	174,028	357,001	535,035
Shipping inwards, tons ...	67,711	72,012	98,221	168,965
„ outwards, „ ...	60,179	70,334	97,719	164,171

The chief imports and exports are, in the order of their value, as estimated in the island for the year 1845:—

## IMPORTS.

Grain .....	£466,192
Bullion and coin .....	441,156 *
Cotton goods .....	234,643
Haberdashery, &c. ....	27,859
Machinery, mill work, and tools .....	23,774

## EXPORTS.

Coffee .....	£368,259
Cinnamon .....	40,821
Areca nuts .....	31,838
Tobacco .....	16,826
Cocoa-nut oil .....	15,936

The commerce of Ceylon was greatly increased, and changed in character, during the last ten years of the period in view. It has been remarked that in 1835 the quantity of coffee imported into the United Kingdom from this colony was only 1,870,143 lbs.; and that in 1845 it was 16,657,239 lbs.; and in 1846, 18,350,341 lbs.† The principal cause of the increase is seen in the equalisation of the British import duties on coffee from the East and from the West Indies, in 1835.

From 1826 to 1835, the import duty on West Indian coffee was 6d. per lb.; and on East Indian 9d. From 1835 to 1842, both paid 6d.; and after 1842, 4d. per lb.

The quantity of land brought under coffee cultivation by European capitalists between 1834 and 1847 is supposed to have approached 100,000 acres; and 400,000 acres more, intended to be so used, were, in the latter year, in process of preparation.‡

\* This item is not, as might be supposed, merely exceptional. The value of the "specie" imported through the Custom House during the six years, 1839-44, was £1,430,917: giving an annual average of £238,486. See S.P. 696, of 1847, p. 76.

† B.B. (printed) 1846, p. 204. This statement, however, is a little overcharged. The supply of 1835 was much below the average of previous years (see post p. 45); and the quantity received in the United Kingdom in 1846, according to the Custom House returns, was 17,735,000 lbs. But the supplies of 1847 and 1848 have more than realised any anticipations likely to have been induced by the statement in the text.

‡ Ibid., p. 205.

And it has been estimated \* that between 1841 and 1846 European capital flowed into the colony for investment at the rate of nearly one million sterling per annum. Consequently, Ceylon has been to the coffee planters of the West Indies, much what Mauritius has been to the sugar planters. It will already have been noticed that the recent commercial progress of Ceylon also closely resembles that of Mauritius in its *means*—the introduction of an ample supply of capital from Britain, and of labour from India.

The effect of this branch of the competition between the planters of the East and the West is apparent in the following figures :—

## COFFEE IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

*The growth of, and from—*

	The British West Indies. lbs.	The East Indies,† Ceylon, and Mauritius. lbs.
In 1827 .....	29,189,746	5,872,511
1828 .....	29,840,785	7,380,492
1829 .....	26,862,528	6,335,647
1830 .....	27,429,144	7,066,199
1831 .....	20,030,802	7,686,500
Averages.....	<u>26,670,601</u>	<u>6,868,269</u>
	lbs.	lbs.
In 1832 .....	24,673,920	10,970,026
1833 .....	19,008,375	6,218,299
1834 .....	22,081,490	8,876,662
1835 .....	14,855,470	5,426,152
1836 .....	18,903,426	9,533,626
Averages.....	<u>19,904,536</u>	<u>8,204,953</u>
	lbs.	lbs.
In 1837 .....	15,577,888	9,806,191
1838 .....	17,588,655	7,756,588
1839 .....	11,485,675	9,920,071
1840 .....	12,797,039	16,885,990
1841 .....	9,927,689	15,958,230
Averages.....	<u>13,473,389</u>	<u>12,065,414</u>

\* Report on the Colonial Revenue of the Island of Ceylon, by Sir J. E. Tennant (October, 1846), p. 9.

† Excluding the imports from the Cape of Good Hope.

	lbs.	lbs.
In 1842 .....	9,491,646 .....	18,275,523
1843 .....	8,530,110 .....	14,407,909
1844 .....	9,290,278 .....	19,502,879
1845 .....	6,355,970 .....	21,741,212
1846 .....	6,257,764 .....	21,071,250
Averages.....	<u>7,985,153</u> .....	<u>18,999,754</u>

[Revenue Tables ; and S.P., 1847, 438.]

It is here shown that, though the quantity of coffee imported from the East was increased in 1836, no very considerable change took place till 1840 ; and that the supply from the West Indies fell off greatly in 1835, and again in 1839. And if it be added that the consumption of coffee in Great Britain was then steadily increasing, and that the short supply in these years raised the price of colonial coffee, in bond, in England, in 1836, and again in 1840, about 50 per cent.,\* it becomes obvious that the effect of the equalisation of the duty, in substituting the produce of the Eastern for that of the Western Colonies, in the home market, was aided very materially by failure of the usual supplies from the latter.

The share of Ceylon in the above-stated supply from the East, which is here more particularly in view,† was as follows :—

#### COFFEE IMPORTED FROM CEYLON.

	lbs.
In 1832 .....	2,824,998
1833 .....	2,535,954
1834 .....	3,537,391
1835 .....	1,870,143
1836 .....	5,026,504
Average.....	<u>3,158,998</u>

\* "History of Prices," vol. ii. p. 399 ; and iv. p. 427.

† S.P. 657 of 1847.

	lbs.
In 1837 .....	7,389,921
1838 .....	4,946,356
1839 .....	4,097,493
1840 .....	8,244,816
1841 .....	7,098,543
Average.....	<u>6,355,425</u>

	lbs.
In 1842 .....	11,154,024
1843 .....	9,515,619
1844 .....	14,971,965
1845 .....	16,657,464
1846 .....	17,735,406
Average.....	<u>14,006,895</u>

[S.P. No. 178 of 1849.]

The receipts in aid of revenue from sales of Crown Lands in Ceylon illustrate the origin of the increased supply in the last ten years. These were—

In 1837 .....	£5,465	In 1841 .....	£29,712	In 1844 .....	£26,534
1838 .....	7,474	1842 .....	25,956	1845 .....	37,946
1839 .....	8,239	1843 .....	29,600	1846 .....	13,054
1840 .....	19,994				

[Revenue Report, 1846, p. 89 ; and B.B., 1846.]

The imports of coffee from Ceylon into the United Kingdom amounted in 1847 to 27,190,024 lbs. ; and in 1848 to 30,521,810 lbs. See S.P. 178 of 1849.

The total quantity of coffee, foreign and colonial, imported into the United Kingdom in 1846 was 51,813,000 lbs., of which were retained for consumption 36,754,578.\*

Another chief article of export is cinnamon, for the production of which it would appear that Ceylon has some peculiar advantages.

Under the Portuguese and the Dutch its cultivation was monopolised by the Government, and the monopoly was maintained by us, with some changes, down to 1832. The trade was then thrown open. But a duty of 3s. or 2s. per lb. was imposed on all cinnamon exported, according to quality. In

\* R.T., 1846, p. 97.

1837 the duties were reduced to 2s. 6d. and 2s.—in June, 1841, to an uniform duty of 2s.—and in 1843 to 1s., at which rate it remained to the end of the period in view. It was further reduced to 4d. per lb., from September, 1848. The import duties payable on its entry for consumption in this country were, previous to 1829, 2s. 6d. per lb. on colonial and 3s. 6d. on foreign cinnamon. In 1829 these duties were reduced to 1s. and 6d. per lb., and in July, 1842, to 6d. and 3d. per lb. In the first years of the period in view, therefore, the export and import duties together imposed a tax of 5s. 6d. per lb. on the consumption of Ceylon cinnamon of medium quality in the United Kingdom; and in the last three years (1844-46) this tax amounted only to 1s. 3d. per lb., a gradual reduction having taken place in the interval. But the quantity of cinnamon consumed in this country has always been small, and taking into account the increase of the population, has not varied materially with the reduction of price.\* The average quantity imported exceeds half a million pounds per annum, but nearly the whole is re-exported, four-fifths of it going to Spain, Italy, Mexico, and the West Indies. The following figures show how small a proportion of this part of the produce of Ceylon has hitherto found consumers at home:—

CINNAMON. †		
	Exported from Ceylon. lbs.	Retained for Consumption in the United Kingdom. lbs.
1834 .....	329,110 .....	11,686
1835 .....	330,321 .....	16,604
1836 .....	724,364 .....	17,038
1837 .....	558,110 .....	14,856
1838 .....	398,176 .....	16,652
1839 .....	596,588 .....	16,343
1840 .....	389,373 .....	15,461
Averages.....	<u>475,148</u> .....	<u>15,520</u>

\* The price of cinnamon, of medium quality, in bond in London, has of late years been from 3s. to 4s. per lb.

† B.B.—Sir J. E. Tennant's Revenue Report, October, 1846, p. 96; S.P. 696 1847, p. 77, and R.T.

	lbs.		lbs.
1841 .....	323,460	.....	15,410
1842 .....	121,244	.....	16,658
1843 .....	1,085,701	.....	16,706
1844 .....	1,057,838	.....	18,462
1845 .....	378,133	.....	23,143
1846 .....	301,233	.....	23,465
1847 .....	440,974	.....	18,075
Averages.....	529,797	.....	18,845

It is, however, requisite to observe that there is another and cheaper product—*cassia lignea*—sufficiently resembling cinnamon in its qualities to be widely substituted for it in use. This we import chiefly from India, and also largely from the Philippine Islands, re-exporting the greater part to Germany and Italy, but retaining for consumption much more of it than of cinnamon, as the following figures will show:—

## CASSIA LIGNEA.

*Imported and retained for consumption in the United Kingdom.*

	lbs.		lbs.
1827 .....	42,984	1832 .....	72,339
1828 .....	55,787	1833 .....	77,067
1829 .....	62,252	1834 .....	100,182
1830 .....	65,705	1835 .....	98,313
1831 .....	61,162	1836 .....	89,396
	287,890		437,297
	lbs.		lbs.
1837 .....	105,485	1842 .....	119,470
1838 .....	100,837	1843 .....	134,399
1839 .....	106,388	1844 .....	112,128
1840 .....	74,050	1845 .....	149,843
1841 .....	83,034	1846 .....	137,855
	469,794		653,695

[R.T.]

The British import duty on *cassia lignea* was, from 1825 to 1829, 1s. per lb., colonial and foreign. In 1829 the duty on colonial was reduced to 6d.; and in July, 1842, the duties were

reduced to 3d. foreign and 1d. colonial, which rates were continued during the remainder of the period in view.

The other chief exports of Ceylon are *areca nuts* (chewed with the betel-leaf by the natives of India), and the cultivation of which is entirely in the hands of the natives, *tobacco*, *pearls*, and the oil and coir of the *cocoa nut*.

The tobacco, about 2,000,000 lbs. per annum, is exported to India. The pearl fishery is held by the Government as a source of revenue, but its produce is extremely variable. In the ten years 1827-36 it yielded, net, £198,177, but in the ten years 1837-46 the expenditure exceeded the receipts by £5,376. The cultivation of the cocoa-nut palm has of late years been undertaken by Europeans, about 20,000 acres of land having been surveyed and sold for this purpose between 1842 and 1847.\* The returns of exports do not, however, afford evidence of extending production.

### EXPORTED FROM CEYLON.

#### COCOA-NUT OIL.

	Gallons.		Gallons.
1837 .....	638,677†	1842 .....	475,967
1838 .....	242,680	1843 .....	726,206
1839 .....	357,543	1844 .....	443,301
1840 .....	475,742	1845 .....	282,186
1841 .....	321,966	1846 .....	123,981

#### COIR.

	Cwts.		Cwts.
1837 .....	36,737	1842 .....	26,130
1838 .....	24,995	1843 .....	22,187
1839 .....	22,195	1844 .....	25,977
1840 .....	23,440	1845 .....	19,540
1841 .....	21,643	1846 .....	23,197

The large and regular importation of *grain* (chiefly rice) draws attention to the singular fact that, though the soil of

\* B.B. (printed), 1847, p. 276. It appears that this plant will thrive only on a light sandy soil near the sea, and where fresh water is abundant.

† Besides 8,076 casks.

Ceylon is said to be well adapted for the growth of rice, and appears, in time past, to have supported a much larger population, the inhabitants, for more than three centuries, have relied upon considerable supplies from the neighbouring coasts of India. This has been attributed to excessive taxation of the culture, and also to the decay of the ancient means of irrigation. It appears to date too far back to be justly ascribed to European influence.

The imports have increased with the immigration of Indian labourers. Since 1839 they have been as follows:—

## RICE.

	Bushels.		Bushels.
1839 .....	884,925	1843 .....	1,591,337
1840 .....	1,041,863	1844 .....	1,635,314
1841 .....	1,194,792	1845 .....	2,170,585
1842 .....	1,206,414	1846 .....	1,978,848

## PADDY.

(*Rice in the husk.*)

	Bushels.		Bushels.
1839 .....	637,770	1843 .....	672,806
1840 .....	777,055	1844 .....	607,252
1841 .....	606,842	1845 .....	944,265
1842 .....	804,825	1846 .....	574,882

The quantity of shipping registered as belonging to Ceylon has not increased of late years so rapidly as might have been expected, and the average tonnage of its vessels, small in 1836, was even smaller in 1846:—

	Ships.	Aggregate tonnage.	Average size. Tons.
In 1836.....	572	26,404	46
1846.....	689	30,828	44

[R.T. 1838, p. 43; 1846, p. 51.]

Further particulars of the commercial condition of Ceylon, during and at the close of the period in view, will be found in the following documents, recently printed and presented to Parliament:—Report on the Colonial Revenue of Ceylon, by

Sir J. E. Tennant, dated 22nd October, 1846; transmitted in Sir Colin Campbell's despatch of 4th November, 1846, and presented to Parliament in the Session of 1847.—Despatch from Sir J. E. Tennant, administering the Government of Ceylon, to Earl Grey, dated 10th May, 1847; B.B. (printed), 1846, p. 199.—Despatch from Viscount Torrington to Earl Grey, dated 4th July, 1848; B.B. (printed), 1847, p. 264.

### THE AUSTRALIAN GROUP

included, at the commencement of the period in view, only the penal settlements of New South Wales and Van Dieman's Land. Western Australia was added in 1829, South Australia in 1836, and New Zealand in 1839.

The settlement of New South Wales, the first made by white men on the continent of Australia, was begun in January, 1788, on the shores of Sydney Cove, by a party of about 1,000 persons, including upwards of 700 convicts. Formed as a penal settlement under the Act 27 Geo. III. c. 2, it retained that character till near the end of the period in view. The territory of the colony, including the district of Port Phillip, now extends from the 26th parallel of S. latitude, where it adjoins the projected colony of North Australia, to the southern coast, in the 39th parallel; and its extreme inland or western boundary is fixed by the eastern limits of South Australia.\* This includes an area of about 480,000 square miles—nearly twice that of Germany.

Van Dieman's Island, about 150 miles from the south-eastern extremity of the Australian continent, and having an area of about 24,000 square miles (Holland and Belgium

\* In two maps appended to the English General Report of the Land and Emigration Commissioners the territory of New South Wales, with the district of Port Phillip, is laid down in detail, including the new counties to be proclaimed in 1848.

together have 25,000) was first settled in 1803 as a place of transportation from New South Wales. Until 1813 it was so used exclusively, all communication, except with England and with New South Wales, being forbidden. Free immigrants first landed in 1821.

The Swan River settlement (Western Australia) was begun in 1829, under the Act 10 Geo. IV. c. 22, as a free colony, intended to include all that portion of Australia westward of longitude 129° E.—a space, apparently, of about 600,000 square miles, equal to the united areas of France, Belgium, Holland, Germany, and Italy—and the greater part of which is still unexplored.

South Australia was first settled in 1836, under the Act 4 and 5 Will. IV. c. 95, also as a free colony, and intended to include so much of Australia as lies south of the tropic of Capricorn, and between 132° and 141° E. longitude—a space of about 330,000 square miles, equal to the united areas of France and Italy. But the greater part of this, too, is unexplored.

New Zealand was partially settled before it was formally annexed to the colony of New South Wales in 1839. Since April, 1841, it has been a separate colony. The entire area of the colony, including the smaller islands, is variously estimated, but would appear to exceed 90,000 square miles, which is about the area of the United Kingdom, excepting Ireland.

It would appear, from the experience hitherto had, that the continental colonies have a peculiar climate—two or three years of increasing drought followed by one in which no rain falls, occurring at regular intervals of ten or twelve years. These droughts are succeeded by heavy rains, and a recurrence of the ordinary course of the seasons. Van Dieman's Land is comparatively little affected by this peculiarity of the Australian climate; and New Zealand, still further removed, seems to be wholly exempt from it. The various effects are already visible in the commerce of the several colonies. Not only is

New South Wales largely dependent upon foreign supplies for grain food, but the colony has experienced severe commercial embarrassments, traceable mainly to the periodical visitations of drought.

An attempt was made to enumerate the population of New South Wales in 1828, but the result was considered in the colony to be very inaccurate, much opposition having been given to the enumerators in consequence of doubts as to the use the Government intended to make of it. It gave 36,598 as the total: the males being 27,611 and the females 8,987. The number of convicts under sentence was 15,668, and those free by servitude or pardon, 7,530, so that nearly two-thirds of the total number apparent had been transported.

In 1836 another enumeration gave as the total 77,096, of which there were convicts under sentence 25,254, or nearly one-third. The whole number under fourteen years of age at this period was stated at 14,171, or about 1,840 per 10,000 of the whole.

In 1846 the total population of the two districts of New South Wales and Port Phillip is stated to have been 187,413, or including the crews of colonial vessels, 189,609.\* The number of children (under fourteen) had then increased to 65,388, or about 3,490 per 10,000. At the same time the number of persons of sixty years of age and over was stated to be—males 2,799, females 942; total, 3,741, or about 199 per 10,000 of the whole population. In the Port Phillip district, in 1846, the population under fourteen was rather less, being 3,212 per 10,000, marking the partial exclusion of children from the emigrating bodies forming the new settlement. Still more marked was the apparent exclusion of aged persons, the proportion of persons of sixty years of age and over, in the Port Phillip district, being only 62 per 10,000, or less than one-third of the proportion in the entire colony. The

\* By a census taken on the 2nd of March, 1846. In the B.B. for that year the population is stated to have been in December 196,704.

proportion of females to males, of all ages in 1846, in the entire colony, was about 66 to 100; and in the district of Port Phillip about 63 to 100.

In South Australia the white population was estimated, at the end of 1846, at 25,893, the females being 11,182 and the males 14,711, or nearly as 76 to 100. The coloured population within the borders of the settlement seems to vary greatly, having been estimated at 1,600 in March, 1846, and at 3,680 in December, 1847.

In Van Dieman's Land the population in 1826 appears to have been 15,312, 6,762, or nearly half being convicts under sentence. The proportion of females to males, for the total, was then as 31 to 100. In 1836 the population had increased to 43,895, and the females were to the males as 40 to 100. And in 1847 the total was 70,164,\* and the females to the males as 46 to 100.

Upon these data we may assume that the following table exhibits nearly the actual growth of the white population of this group during the twenty years in view:—

POPULATION OF THE AUSTRALIAN GROUP AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

	In 1826, or thereabouts.	Authority.	In 1836, or thereabouts.	Authority.	In 1846, or thereabouts.	Authority.
New South Wales .....	36,598	(b) B.B. census in 1828	77,096	B. B. 1836	189,609	B.B. 1846
South Australia .....	—	—	—	—	25,893	B.B. 1846
Western Australia .....	—	—	2,040	S.P. 737, II., 1847	4,547	B.B. 1846
Van Dieman's Land.....	15,312	B. B. 1826	43,895	B. B. 1836	70,164	B.B. 1847
New Zealand .....	—	—	—	—	18,171(c)	B.B. 1844
	51,910		123,031		308,384	

\* B.B. Between April, 1846, and June, 1848, emigration took place from Van Dieman's Land, chiefly to Port Phillip and South Australia, to the number, in the aggregate, of 10,012. [B.B. (printed), 1847, p. 234.] No emigrants left the United Kingdom for Van Dieman's Land in 1846, and only eight in 1847. [Eighth Report of the Emigration Commissioners, p. 10.]

(b) This cannot be relied upon. The census of 1828 was opposed by the colonists, and the returns are said to be inaccurate.

(c) Exclusive of 109,550 of the aborigines included in the census of 1844.

And the following figures exhibit the chief sources of this rapid increase :—

### CONVICTS TRANSPORTED

*from the United Kingdom to New South Wales, (d) and Van Dieman's Land.*

1827...2,642	1832...4,229	1837...4,068	1842.. 4,166
1828...3,271	1833...4,551	1838...3,805	1843 ..2,993
1829...4,023	1834...4,920	1839...2,732	1844.. 3,279
1830...4,133	1835...4,399	1840...2,573	1845...
1831...3,971	1836...4,273	1841...2,926	1846...
<u>18,040</u>	<u>22,372</u>	<u>16,104</u>	

[S.P. Nos. 699 of 1838, p. 322 ; and 356 of 1845, p. 84.]

### EMIGRANTS

*from the United Kingdom to the Australian Colonies, and New Zealand.*

1827... 715	1832 ..3,733	1837... 5,054	1842...8,534
1828...1,056	1833...4,093	1838...14,021	1843...3,478
1829 ..2,016	1834...2,800	1839...15,786	1844...2,229
1830...1,242	1835...1,860	1840...15,850	1845... 830
1831...1,561	1836...3,124	1841...32,625	1846...2,347
<u>6,590</u>	<u>15,610</u>	<u>83,336</u>	<u>17,418</u>

[Eighth Report of the Emigration Commissioners, p 40]

Already it will have been observed that, as a rule, the imports of the extra tropical colonies exceed their exports. One cause of this, applicable, more or less, to all the Colonies, is obvious in the share of their government expenditure defrayed from the treasury at home. Another, already adverted to, but applying only to some of the Colonies, is seen in the influx of capital brought by immigrants. And a third, peculiar to New South Wales and Van Dieman's Land, and suggested by the figures just stated, is the expenditure by the home government in the restraint, correction, and maintenance

(d) Transportation to New South Wales was diminished after 1836, and has almost entirely ceased since 1840 ; the number of convicts sent to Van Dieman's Land having been proportionately increased.

of a large number of convicts, which may be regarded as a branch of the administration of justice in the United Kingdom transferred to these colonies. The first year in which the amount issued from the Exchequer on account of the maintenance, &c., of convicts in New South Wales and Van Dieman's Land appears to be separately stated is 1838, and the sums so issued since have been as under\* :—

In 1838.....	£244,948
1839.....	234,771
1840.....	76,729
1841.....	270,649
1842.....	264,642
1843.....	387,357
1844.....	429,307
1845.....	185,982
1846.....	234,710

Total in nine years, £2,329,095—Annual average £258,788.

The expenditure of the home government within the twenty years now in view, in connection with the founding and early growth of the free colonies of Western Australia, New Zealand, and South Australia,† (exclusive of the ordinary revenue and expenditure of the colony) is also to be considered, as tending to the same effect.

In Western Australia there was expended by the Crown, from the date of the first settlement in 1829 to the 31st of March, 1847, £162,848, besides grants made by Parliament, during the ten years 1838–47 amounting to £69,814, making a total of £232,662.

In New Zealand there was expended by the New Zealand Company, between the 2nd of May, 1839, and the 5th of April, 1847 (exclusive of dividends to shareholders), £636,131,‡ and the grants made by Parliament during the five years 1841–46 amounted to £128,223, making a total of £764,354. A con-

\* Finance Accounts, for each year.

† S.P. 737, ii., 1847.

‡ During the same period the Company received, for land sold, £284,584.

siderable sum was also expended by the home government in the maintenance of military and naval forces.

In South Australia there was expended, in eleven years, from 1835 to 1845, Parliamentary grants £225,382—from proceeds of sales of land, £298,270—and loans from England £85,800 : making a total of £609,452. But there was little or no military or naval expenditure in South Australia during this period.

New South Wales, the oldest of these colonies, has never produced food enough for its inhabitants, but of late years it has been well supplied from Van Dieman's Land. The colonial trade in grain food, since 1835, is exhibited in the following tables :—

	SOUTH AUSTRALIA.		NEW ZEALAND.	
	Value of Grain, Flour, Meal, and Biscuit.		Value of Grain, Flour, Meal, and Biscuit.	
	Imported.	Exported.	Imported.	Exported.
	£	£	£	£
1839	40,611	270	—	—
1840	62,456	2,477	—	—
1841	57,593	253	8,870	190
1842	26,020	79	34,565	680
1843	381	10,711	19,555	1,175
1844	1,095	20,303	12,150	390

According to the B.B. returns, the value of the excess of imports of grain, &c., into New South Wales was, in 1843, £98,901; in 1844, £53,210; in 1845, £25,924; in 1846, £51,506; and in 1847, £35,796. It would therefore appear to be decreasing.

In the earlier years mentioned in the above table, the imports into New South Wales were principally from India, and from Mexico and South America—in the later years, almost entirely from Van Dieman's Land. The exports, throughout, were chiefly to Van Dieman's Land, New Zealand, and Mauritius.

The imports into Van Dieman's Land were principally from the United Kingdom and New South Wales, and the exports almost entirely to the neighbouring Australian settlements.

The relative condition of New South Wales and Van Dieman's Land, as exhibited in these tables, may be stated thus : Taking the year 1844 as an example, if the barrel of flour or meal be assumed to contain 250 lbs., and eight bushels of grain, or 330 lbs. of flour, be allowed for the average annual consumption of one person, then the excess of exports from Van Dieman's Land being in 1844, 262,666 bushels of grain and 32,445 barrels of flour, was equivalent to a year's supply of such food to about 57,000 persons ; and the excess of imports into New South Wales being 207,853 bushels of grain and 18,696 barrels of flour, was equivalent to a year's supply to about 40,000 persons. As the whole (white) population of this group, excluding that of Van Dieman's Land, did not, probably, in 1844, exceed 220,000, more than a fourth part of it would appear to have been supplied with grain food by exports from that colony. It will be seen that after 1842 South Australia passed into the list of exporting colonies ; and it has apparently since continued in that position,\* notwithstanding the rapid increase of its population by immigration. It seems, then, that New South Wales and New Zealand produce considerably less, and Van Dieman's Land and South Australia considerably more, grain food than they require ; and that the whole supply (in the group) is nearly on a level with the whole consumption.

A summary of the contents of the appended tables as to this group affords striking evidence not only of the rapid progress of its commerce, but also of the effect of immigration in disturbing the test of progress derived from the returns of imports and of shipping.

\* See B.B. (printed) 1847, pp. 249, 250, for a statement in detail of the exports from South Australia, during the years ending April 4, 1845, 1846, 1847, and 1848.

## QUINQUENNIAL AVERAGES.

	1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
Imports, £	764,463	1,296,392	2,766,593	2,189,982
Exports, £	392,560	789,135	1,709,872	1,931,132
Shipping inwards, tons .....	57,211	97,723	208,818	268,555
„ outwards, „ .....	53,707	94,911	198,483	257,781

The imperfect state of the shipping returns for this group in the period 1837-41 causes the summary of the tonnage inwards and outwards to appear less than the true amount. See Appendix, p. 39.

The staple product of these colonies is wool—a coincidence with the early growth of the commerce of our own island not unworthy of remark.\* The progress of this branch of their export trade, during the period in view, is sufficiently described by the following figures :—

## WOOL EXPORTED FROM NEW SOUTH WALES.†

	lbs.		lbs.
In 1827 .....	407,116	In 1832 .....	1,515,156
1828 .....	834,343	1833 .....	1,734,203
1829 .....	1,005,333	1834 .....	2,246,933
1830 .....	899,750	1835 .....	3,893,927
1831 .....	1,401,284	1836 .....	3,693,241
Average .....	<u>829,365</u>	Average .....	<u>2,496,692</u>
	lbs.		lbs.
In 1837 .....	4,448,796	In 1842 .....	9,428,036
1838 .....	5,749,376	1843 .....	12,704,899
1839 .....	7,213,584	1844 .....	13,542,173
1840 .....	8,610,775	1845 .....	17,364,734
1841 .....	8,390,540	1846 .....	16,479,520
Average .....	<u>6,882,614</u>	Average .....	<u>13,904,272</u>

\* "For the two first centuries after the Conquest our English towns made some forward steps towards improvement, though still very inferior to those on the continent. Their commerce was almost confined to the exportation of wool, the great staple commodity of England, upon which more than any other, in its raw or manufactured state, our wealth has been founded."—Hallam, "Middle Ages," chap. ix. part ii.

† "Progress of the Nation," and B.B.

Thus the exports in the second period were 201 per cent. greater than in the first; in the third 176 per cent. greater than in the second; and in the fourth 102 per cent. greater than in the third. In 1847 the quantity exported was 23,379,722 lbs.

## WOOL EXPORTED FROM VAN DIEMAN'S LAND.\*

	lbs.		lbs.
In 1832 .....	1,333,061	In 1837 .....	2,638,250
1833 .....	1,454,719	1838 .....	2,839,512
1834 .....	1,372,668	1839 .....	3,080,920
1835 .....	1,833,653	1840 .....	3,019,340
1836 .....	1,727,258	1841 .....	3,408,360
Average .....	<u>1,544,271</u>	Average .....	<u>2,997,276</u>
In 1842 .....			lbs.
1843 .....			3,297,360
1844 .....			3,376,080
1845 .....			3,740,400
			3,820,320
Average .....			<u>3,558,540</u>

The different capabilities of New South Wales and Van Dieman's Land are here well marked by a comparison of their exports in 1832-36, and in 1842-45.

The exports of wool from South Australia were, in 1839, valued at £350; in 1840, at £8,740; in 1841, at £36,226; in 1842, at £29,749; in 1843, at £45,569; and in 1844, at £42,770.† For the last three years they were, in quantity †—

	lbs.		lbs.		lbs.
In 1845 ...	1,325,113	In 1846 ...	2,042,195	In 1847 ...	1,114,862

This sketch of the recent growth of our supply of wool from Australia would hardly be complete without some reference to its effect upon the total supply we have, during the same period, received from abroad. In the five years 1827-31 there were imported into the United Kingdom, from

\* "Progress of the Nation," Revenue Tables, and B.B.

† S.P. 696, 1847.

‡ Revenue Tables, and B.B.

all parts, 144,625,000 lbs. of wool, of which there came from British possessions 8,388,000 lbs., or less than *six* parts in 100. In the five years 1842-46 the whole quantity imported was 302,907,000 lbs., of which 123,330,000 lbs., or more than *forty* parts in 100, come from British possessions.\* More than half of the foreign supply comes from Germany. The quantity of wool retained for consumption in the United Kingdom cannot (in consequence of the abolition of the import duty) be stated for any year after 1844. In the five years, 1840-44, the quantity retained was 261,981,000 lbs.; giving an annual average of 52,396,000 lbs. But we are yet far from being independent of a foreign supply. Were the produce of the British possessions to increase as rapidly during the next as during the last twenty years, they would not, in 1866, yield more than about the quantity we now import and retain for consumption.

For some years past these colonies have afforded facilities for carrying on a portion of the southern whale fishery by British subjects. The following table may serve to mark the progress of this branch of industry down to 1844:—

SPERM AND TRAIN OIL ANNUALLY EXPORTED.

	1835	1836	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	1842	1843	1844
	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.
From										
New South Wales .....	818,327	685,286	836,824	997,549	755,169	941,052	518,051	467,238	384,247	357,960
Van Dieman's Land .....	478,545	515,475	532,757	1,013,152	813,140	741,789	786,042	295,489	278,905	539,540
Totals	1,296,872	1,200,751	1,369,581	2,010,701	1,568,309	1,682,841	1,304,093	762,727	663,152	897,500
					£	£	£	£	£	£
South Australia, value...	—	—	—	—	8,500	5,500	2,870	4,673	4,669	3,671
New Zealand, " .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	7,280	7,905	17,260	20,840
Totals							10,150	12,578	21,929	24,511

The decrease as to New South Wales is obvious; and, if the first five years be compared with the last five, it is difficult to resist the conclusion that in Van Dieman's Land, also, the fishery is declining. South Australia may be said to share, as

\* S.P. 306, 1844 (in which will be found a detailed statement of the imports and exports of wool from 1816 to 1843 inclusive), and R.T.

a colony, most of the characteristics of New South Wales ; and there, too, the whale fishery seems little likely to prosper. It appears from the B.B. returns \* that the exports from New South Wales in 1845 were 1,352 tuns of sperm, and 571 tuns of black whale oil ; and in 1846, 1,064 tuns of sperm and 344 tuns of black ; which would be equivalent to an aggregate export of 484,596 gallons in 1845, and 354,816 gallons in 1846. According to the same returns, the exports of 1847 were equivalent to 389,346 gallons, so that the quantity annually exported was nearly stationary during the five years, 1843-47.

The use of value instead of quantity as the measure of the exports of South Australia and New Zealand precludes a summary of the export trade in oil from the entire group.† If, however, the oil be valued at 2s. per gallon,‡ the quantity exported from these two colonies was, in 1841 about 101,000, and in 1844 about 245,000 gallons—the increase in the interval being gradual, and occurring in New Zealand. A general comparison on the same basis gives an aggregate export from the four colonies, in the three years 1835-36-37, of 3,867,214 gallons ; and in the three years 1842-43-44 of 2,913,559 gallons. It is apparent that a continuance of the increase exhibited in the exports from New Zealand, if unaccompanied by any further decline as to the other colonies, would soon make good the deficiency. But whether this increase will continue for many years may be reasonably doubted, not only upon facts already stated with regard to the other colonies, but in view of the history of the whale fishery wherever it has been carried

\* B.B. (printed) 1847, p. 220.

† As already stated, no returns have been received from New Zealand since those for 1844.

‡ The price of black whale oil of the Southern fishery, per tun, in London, was in January, 1840, £24 to £26 ; in January, 1841, £26 to £30 ; in January, 1842, £32 to £36 ; in January, 1843, £37 to £41 ; in January, 1844, £34 to £37 ; in January, 1845, £27 10s. to £33 ; in January, 1846, £24 10s. to £28 ; and in January, 1847, £28 to £31. (Tooke's "History of Prices," vol. iv. p. 330.) Two shillings per gallon, the assumed average value on exportation from the colony, would be equal to £25 4s. per tun, which would allow for a proportion of the higher priced sperm oil.

on—the fish invariably retreating from, and the produce diminishing in, any given locality in proportion to the extent and vigour of the pursuit.

New South Wales, like the Cape of Good Hope, has added the cultivation of the vine to the growth of wool. By the returns of 1846 [B.B.] there were 648 acres so planted; which produced in that year 52,210 gallons of wine and 1,433 of brandy. And in 1847 the extent of the vineyards was returned at 1,000 acres; the wine produced at 55,335 gallons, and the brandy at 1,432 gallons. But it may yet reasonably be doubted whether the wines of the southern hemisphere will ever compete with those of the south of Europe.

Much more important are the late mineral discoveries in Australia. The character of the principal commodity—copper—thus added to the list of exports may be regarded as peculiarly fortunate. There are few articles the value of which is so much increased by being brought into contact with powerful and costly machinery, such as can only be worked to advantage, at present, in England. Hence their copper ore is even more sure to come direct to our furnaces and forges than their wool to our looms. There is here another coincidence with the early commerce of England. It would appear that in the twelfth century copper and lead, from the mines of Cornwall and Devon, were among our chief articles of export. (Macpherson's *Annals*, vol. i. p. 344.) It is curious to observe that late in the same century the export of *slaves* was still carried on; and that “the resolution of the Irish (A.D. 1172), who had hitherto been great purchasers of English slaves, to buy no more, and to set at liberty those they had, gave a great check to that inhuman trade” (Ibid).

The quantities of copper ore imported from these colonies into the United Kingdom in 1846, were, from South Australia, 3,303 tons; from New South Wales, 719 tons; and from Van Dieman's Land, 29 tons.

The exports of Western Australia have, hitherto, been of

but small value. They consist chiefly of wool, fish-oil, and whalebone : the produce of the sea forming about three-fifths of the whole annual value exported.

New Zealand exports chiefly fish-oil and timber ; and these seem not unlikely to form the staples of its export trade.

The shipping registered as belonging to ports in this group has increased in proportion to the commerce ; and the diminution of the average size of the vessels agrees with what has been observed as to most of the other colonies.

	Vessels.	Aggregate Tonnage.	Average size of Vessels. Tons.
1836 .....	139 .....	12,586 .....	90
1846 .....	574 .....	39,853 .....	69

## THE COMMERCIAL COLONIES AS CONSUMERS OF BRITISH PRODUCE

IN the tables given on pages 226, 227 are the official returns of the declared value of British produce and manufactures exported to the Colonies enumerated, and also to the East India Company's territories, during the period in view.

By these figures it appears that the increase to the North American Group was continuous through the whole period, though slower in the later than in the earlier years ; and that the average of 1842-46 was nearly 63 per cent. above that of 1827-31.

To the West Indian Group there was a decrease in the second period, and one, more marked, in the fourth ; and the net result is a falling off of nearly 17 per cent. in the average of 1842-46, as compared with that of 1827-31. This is partly attributable to an increase of the imports into this group from other countries, particularly the United States ; and partly, also, to a reduction of the quantity of goods imported from the United Kingdom for re-exportation.

226 *ECONOMIC AND STATISTICAL STUDIES*EXPORTS OF BRITISH MANUFACTURES AND PRODUCE TO  
BRITISH COLONIES.

1827-31.

Groups.	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	Averages.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
North American .....	1,397,350	1,691,044	1,581,723	1,857,133	2,089,327	1,723,315
West Indian .....	3,583,222	3,289,704	3,612,085	2,838,448	2,589,949	3,182,681
African .....	372,317	409,501	501,754	582,159	491,013	471,348
East Indian (a) .....	3,857,725	Not stated apart from the exports to China.				—
Australian .....	340,130	446,326	311,526	316,073	403,223	363,455

1832-36.

Groups.	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	Averages.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
North American .....	2,075,725	2,092,550	1,671,069	2,158,158	2,732,291	2,145,958
West Indian .....	2,439,808	2,597,589	2,680,024	3,187,540	3,786,453	2,938,282
African .....	582,466	675,407	630,865	619,461	949,501	691,540
East Indian .....	Not stated apart from the exports to China.		2,727,888	3,389,251	4,546,684	3,554,607
Australian .....	467,814	559,308	716,014	699,032	835,637	655,561

1837-41.

Groups.	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	Averages.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
North American .....	2,141,035	1,992,457	3,047,651	2,847,913	2,947,061	2,595,223
West Indian .....	3,456,745	3,393,441	3,986,598	3,574,970	2,504,004	3,383,151
African .....	801,752	1,036,677	932,500	909,219	795,372	895,104
East Indian .....	3,962,463	4,343,538	4,960,338	6,349,004	5,935,140	5,110,096
Australian .....	921,568	1,337,757	1,702,849	2,051,625	1,336,626	1,470,085

1842-46.

Groups.	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	Averages.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
North American .....	2,333,525	1,751,211	3,070,861	3,555,954	3,808,059	2,803,922
West Indian .....	2,591,425	2,882,441	2,451,477	2,789,211	2,505,587	2,644,028
African .....	828,761	1,093,186	882,565	1,180,777	902,599	977,577
East Indian .....	5,414,810	6,662,533	7,981,316	7,048,837	6,744,687	6,770,436
Australian .....	958,952	1,307,062	791,994	1,244,121	1,495,364	1,159,498

(a) The "East Indian" Group here should, to accord with the arrangement previously adopted, include only Ceylon and Mauritius; but in the official returns the exports to Ceylon and to the East India Company's territories are not stated separately.

## SUMMARY.

*Quinquennial Averages*

GROUPS.	1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
	£	£	£	£
North American .....	1,723,315	2,145,958	2,595,223	2,803,922
West Indian .....	3,182,681	2,938,282	3,383,151	2,644,028
African .....	471,348	691,540	895,104	977,577
East Indian .....	—	3,554,607	5,110,096	6,770,436
Australian .....	363,455	655,561	1,470,085	1,159,498
Total.....	—	9,985,948	13,453,659	14,355,461

The African Group shows an increasing importation of British produce through the entire period; but the increase was small between 1837-41 and 1842-46. The increase of the quinquennial average between the first period and the fourth was, however, more than 107 per cent.

To the East Indian Group the increase is greater than to any of the three before-mentioned; and though the annual variations were considerable, the quinquennial averages show a very steady rate of progress, amounting to more than 90 per cent. between 1832-36 and 1842-46.

The British exports to the Australian Group increased between 1827-31 and 1842-46 by no less than 219 per cent.; but there was a decrease, between the third and fourth periods, of 21 per cent. This decrease is explained partly by the emigration returns, but chiefly by the fact that in the two or three years ending with 1840, when the imports of British produce reached their highest amount, there was much speculative trading in these colonies (at Sydney in particular), which was in due course succeeded by extensive commercial embarrassments, and a much diminished demand for manufactured commodities.

It is not unworthy of remark, in connection with this part of the subject, that another maritime power—France—has colonial possessions in every part of the world in which we have them, except one: Australia. To balance the exception,

however, France has her recently-acquired possessions in the Pacific (the Marquesas and Tahiti), where there is no English settlement. This remarkable correspondence in the local distribution of the colonial possessions of the two powers suggests a comparison in other respects, and may justify a short digression for that purpose.

The North American Colonies of France consist of the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, near the mouth of Fortune Bay, on the southern coast of Newfoundland.

Her West Indian Colonies are, like ours, partly insular and partly continental; and consist of Guadeloupe, one of the Windward Islands, with the dependent isles of Marie Galante, Les Saintes, La Désirade, and two-thirds of the island of St. Martin (the remainder being held by the Dutch)—of Martinique, another of the Windward Islands—and of French Guiana, the most eastern and smallest of the three divisions of that country.

The French territorial possessions in Africa are confined to the Senegal settlement, comprising several islands and small portions of the continent between the Senegal and Gambia rivers. There are also one or two small trading posts on the Gold Coast, and in the Bight of Benin.

In the Indian Ocean, France holds the island of Bourbon, about ninety miles W.S.W. of Mauritius; and also several islands (St. Marie, Nossi Bé, and several others) near the north end of Madagascar.

The French settlements on the peninsula of India are, Pondicherry, on the Coromandel Coast, about eighty-three miles S.S.W. of Madras; Chandernagore, in Bengal; Yanaon, in Orissa; Mahé, in Malabar; and Karical in the Carnatic.

The following tabular view of the respective latitudes and areas of these possessions (excepting those in India), and of their population, is compiled partly from an elaborate article

by M. Chasseriau, in the *Patria* for 1847, partly from Mr. McCulloch's Geographical Dictionary, and, as to the population in 1826, from a statement published in the Annual Register for 1830, the authority for which, however, is not there referred to.

## FRENCH COLONIES.

	Latitude.	Area. (approximativè.)	Population.	
			In 1826.	In 1842.
NORTH AMERICAN—				
Saint Pierre .....	46.46 N.	} 23,500	—	} 1,677
Miquelon.....	47.5 N.		—	
WEST INDIAN—				
Martinique .....	(Fort Royal.) 14.36 N.	109,000	101,865	118,575
Guadeloupe.....	(Pointe-à-Pitre) 16.14 N.	160,000	} 126,331	} 130,469
Marie Galante.....	15.58 N.	15,500		
Désirade .....	16.19 N.	2,500		
Les Saintes .....	15.50 N.	1,500		
Saint Martin .....	18.5 N.	Undefined	} 21,481	} 20,365
French Guiana .....	1.20 to 5.50 N.	8,000,000		
African Settlements ..	13.20 to 16 N.	Undefined	16,300	18,864
INDIAN OCEAN—				
Bourbon .....	(Saint Denis,) 20.51 s.	260,000	84,700	105,124
St. Marie de Madagascar .....	17. s.	16,000	—	} 26,067
Nossi-Bé, &c. ....	(Hellville,) 13.23 s.	69,300	—	
				421,141
PACIFIC OCEAN—				
Marquesas .....	(Nouka Hiva,) 8.57 s.	119,800	—	—
Tahiti .....	(Pointe Vénus,) 17.29 s.	196,500	—	—

## EXPORTS OF FRENCH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES TO FRENCH COLONIES. (a)

1827-31.

[Expressed in thousands of francs.]

Groups.	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	Averages.
	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.
North American .....	607.	335.	429.	396.	393.	432.
West Indian .....	45,300.	43,304.	44,480.	25,549.	28,219.	37,370.
African .....	3,579.	2,415.	2,637.	2,271.	1,528.	2,486.
East Indian .....	9,754.	8,971.	16,613.	11,277.	3,801.	10,157.
						50,445.
Algeria .....	Not brought into the official accounts till 1831.				4,810.	

(a) "Tableau général du commerce de la France avec ses colonies et les puissances étrangères," for each of the years referred to.

1832-36. <span style="float: right;">[Expressed in thousands of francs.]</span>						
Groups.	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	Averages.
	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.
North American .....	2,717(a)	4,800.	4,814.	4,595.	3,617.	4,109.
West Indian .....	43,695.	26,829.	30,938.	34,020.	37,687.	34,633.
African .....	2,203.	2,202.	2,580.	2,565.	2,963.	2,502.
East Indian .....	5,201.	6,751.	8,836.	7,867.	7,401.	7,211.
						48,455.
Algeria .....	9,238.	15,520.	8,219.	7,282.	9,512.	9,954.

1837-41. <span style="float: right;">[Expressed in thousands of francs.]</span>						
Groups.	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	Averages.
	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.
North American .....	4,102.	5,600.	5,677.	5,021.	4,403.	4,960.
West Indian .....	37,949.	33,802.	33,607.	39,936.	38,108.	36,680.
African .....	6,708.	5,428.	5,334.	4,837.	3,573.	5,176.
East Indian .....	10,987.	14,076.	6,430.	10,889.	16,614.	11,799.
						58,615.
Algeria .....	11,800.	17,962.	16,371.	22,095.	29,630.	19,571.

1842-46. <span style="float: right;">[Expressed in thousands of francs.]</span>						
Groups.	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	Averages.
	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.
North American .....	5,746.	5,573.	4,892.	6,187.	5,340.	5,547.
West Indian .....	33,303.	46,500.	46,097.	42,434.	45,325.	42,731.
African .....	3,614.	4,284.	5,639.	8,846.	9,147.	6,306.
East Indian .....	17,105.	18,226.	15,235.	14,266.	15,428.	16,052.
						70,636.
Algeria .....	33,595.	41,421.	63,424.	89,353.	94,490.	64,456.

## SUMMARY.

## QUINQUENNIAL AVERAGES.

[Expressed in thousands of francs.]				
Groups.	1827-31.	1832-36.	1837-41.	1842-46.
	fr.	fr.	fr.	fr.
North American .....	432.	4,109.	4,960.	5,547.
West Indian .....	37,370.	34,633.	36,680.	42,731.
African .....	2,486.	2,502.	5,176.	6,306.
East Indian .....	10,157.	7,211.	11,799.	16,052.
Total.....	50,445.	48,455.	58,615.	70,636.

(a) The great increase here shown requires explanation. See the previous years.

If the above summary be compared with that framed for the English Colonies, and if the blank which renders the latter imperfect as to the East Indian Group, for the period 1827-31, be filled up by the sum of £3,000,000, and if, further, the French returns be reduced to sterling at the rate of 25 francs to the pound, the general result will be as follows:—

Value of British produce exported to the British Colonies	
annually, on an average of the five years 1827-31 .....	£8,740,799
The like on an average of the five years 1842-46 .....	14,355,461
Difference (showing an increase of 64 per cent.) .....	<u>£5,614,662</u>
Value of French produce exported to the French Colonies	
annually, on an average of the five years 1827-31.....	£2,017,800
The like on an average of the five years 1842-46 .....	2,825,440
Difference (showing an increase of nearly 40 per cent.)	<u>£807,640</u>

Inference from this comparison is, however, checked by various considerations. The French exports to the French Colonies, in North America appear, by their official returns, to have increased so enormously between 1831 and 1833, without apparent cause, as to suggest the probability of some material change in the official method of statement, and that the annual amount above stated for the period 1827-31 should be at least £100,000 higher.

Then it would seem that the whole population of the French Colonies here alluded to was in 1826 about 400,000, and in 1842 did not much exceed 420,000. On the other hand, the details already given lead to the conclusion that the British Colonies particularly referred to in the present paper (and which took the whole of the exports above stated, excepting those sent to the East India Company's territories) had a total population, in 1826, of about 3,800,000, and in 1846 of about 5,500,000: and that at the latter date this number comprised a white population numbering, in the aggregate, about 2,460,000, about one-third of which had

been made up by emigration from the United Kingdom during the preceding twenty years.\* The French Colonies appear to have received, during the same period, scarcely any addition to their population by immigration.

Also, it will be borne in mind that British produce exported to the Colonies is not necessarily consumed there. For instance, British cottons sent direct to the United States have during this period been heavily taxed: if sent to Canada, and smuggled over the frontier, they have escaped the tax; and part of our exports to the West Indies have passed into South America. Of course this remark is applicable, in some degree, to the whole range of our exports. Hence, comparisons in gross of the value of our exports to different countries, in proportion to their population, are often fallacious as tests of the relative extent to which the inhabitants of those countries *consume* our produce.

### COMPARATIVE PROGRESS OF EMIGRATION AND OF EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE

THE following is a parallel statement, from the Revenue Tables of the Board of Trade, and the Reports of the Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners, of the declared value of British produce exported, and the aggregate number of emigrants registered, in each of the twenty years included in this inquiry.

	British Produce exported.		Emigrants.
	£		
1827 .....	37,181,000	.....	28,003
1828 .....	36,812,000	.....	26,092
1829 .....	35,842,000	.....	31,198
1830 .....	<b>38,271,000</b>	.....	56,907

\* The registered emigration to the North American Colonies in the twenty years 1827-46 amounted to 605,069, and that to the Australian Colonies to 122,954: total, 728,023. To this is to be added the emigrants not registered, and those to other colonies not distinguished in the returns.

	British Produce exported.	Emigrants.
	£	
1831	<b>37,164,000</b>	<b>83,160</b>
1832	36,450,000	<b>103,140</b>
1833	39,667,000	62,527
1834	41,649,000	76,222
1835	<b>47,372,000</b>	44,478
1836	<b>53,368,000</b>	<b>75,417</b>
1837	42,070,000	<b>72,034</b>
1838	50,062,000	33,222
1839	<b>53,233,000</b>	62,207
1840	<b>51,406,000</b>	90,743
1841	51,634,000	<b>118,592</b>
1842	47,381,000	<b>128,344</b>
1843	52,279,000	57,212
1844	<b>58,584,000</b>	70,686
1845	<b>60,111,000</b>	93,501
1846	57,786,000	<b>129,851</b>
1847	—	<b>258,270</b>

There are here four nearly equidistant periods distinctly marked by the occurrence of maximum numbers in each column: that is to say, if we select the two highest numbers for each occurring in the first five or six years, and proceed in the same way to the end, we find the exports at a maximum in 1830-31, in 1835-36, in 1839-40, and in 1844-45: and, similarly, emigration at a maximum in 1831-32, in 1836-37, in 1841-42, and in 1846-47. And if the comparison here suggested be instituted with a close regard to the basis of the figures relied upon, the excess of value exported in the years mentioned in the text will become still more striking. The excess occurred, in each instance, after a considerable fall of prices, and before they had again reached their average; this being deduced from their level in the years immediately prior and subsequent.

The grounds of this coincidence are not, I conceive, to be fully developed without reference to topics quite beyond the scope of the present paper. I may, however, be permitted to invite attention to one circumstance affecting the subject which has a particular bearing on our relations with the Colonies. It is especially remarkable of the foreign commerce of Britain that it involves the investment of capital abroad

to an extent not only absolutely, but proportionately, much greater than is usual in the commerce of any other country. The British producer often remains unpaid for his goods until after they have been sold in a foreign market, and consumed. While payment is deferred, interest accrues; and the interest must be paid in the price. But though we commonly give, it is comparatively seldom that we take, credit. In other words, we commonly furnish the capital embarked in the transit of commodities between Britain and other countries. To direct and superintend the use of this capital is the business of numerous British residents abroad; and to the due protection of the persons and property thus risked under the shadow of the British flag it will be observed that all the Colonies afford some, and not a few of them essential facilities.

It is unnecessary to refer to the various causes which occasionally produce a material excess in the home supply of manufactured commodities, as compared with the demand. It is generally agreed that the chief causes are of *home growth*; and that during this period they have occurred at tolerably regular intervals. When such an excess occurs, it is obvious that the practice of supplying foreign markets in anticipation of the demand greatly facilitates the discharge of the excess in that direction—the requisite channels being already open, and an abatement of price always leading to *some* increase of demand. Hence a tendency to periodical maxima in the annual value of British commodities exported. These, so produced, would indicate pressure on the holding capitalist. Production being thus limited at home, the pressure reaches the labourer, who fails to obtain employment, and an additional impulse is given to emigration—an increase of which makes its appearance in the years immediately following. It is clear that this only partly explains the particular fluctuations exhibited in the column of exports between 1827 and 1846. But the periodicity and the coincidence observed

are remarkable enough to suggest the propriety of further inquiry into the actual connection of the several phenomena.

The scope of the present paper does not permit me to pursue the subject; but to those who may be disposed to do so, the following table, in which the successive fluctuations in each column are marked with some degree of precision, may possibly be useful.

[For the Exports the millions are expressed as units; and for the Emigrants the thousands are so expressed.]

	Exports.	Excess.		Emi- grants.	Excess.
	£				
Average of 3 years—1827-29	36.5		Average of 3 years—1828-30	38.	
„ 2 years—1830-31	37.7	1.2	„ 2 years—1831-32	93.1	55.1
Average of 3 years—1832-34	39.2		Average of 3 years—1833-35	61.	
„ 2 years—1835-36	50.3	11.1	„ 2 years—1836-37	73.7	12.7
Average of 2 years—1837-38	46.		Average of 3 years—1838-40	62.	
„ 2 years—1839-40	52.3	6.3	„ 2 years—1841-42	123.4	61.4
Average of 3 years—1841-43	50.3		Average of 3 years—1843-45	73.7	
„ 2 years—1844-45	59.3	9.	„ 2 years—1846-47	194.	121.3

There is a manifest want of agreement in the excesses of exports and emigration as here shown for the second period: the excess of the former being greater, and that of the latter less, than in any of the other periods. This may be explained by reference to facts apart from the influences here particularly adverted to. With reference to the extraordinary excess of exports, there was in the two years 1835-36 a large and exceptional addition made to the usual amount of the exports of British produce to the United States, and elsewhere, upon credit, in connection with extensive speculations in the purchase of foreign produce, arising from a general anticipation of high prices.\* The annual average (declared) value of the British produce exported to the United States in 1832-33-34 was £6,630,000; and in 1835-36 it rose to £11,496,000. There were also large additional exports to the East Indies and China

\* "History of Prices," vol. ii. p. 252.

immediately after the opening of the trade in that direction in 1834. And the small excess in the number of emigrants in 1836-37 is to be taken in connection with the fact that the prices of food were unusually low in 1834-35-36; and not very high in 1837.

#### SUMMARY.

No available standard of progress seems to be alike applicable to all, or even to a considerable part of the Colonies enumerated. Any attempt, therefore, to state their progress summarily, during the period in view, either together or as compared with each other, must be open to objection.

With reference to the appended tables, any collective statement of either Imports or Exports would be defective for the period 1827-31, in consequence of the imperfect state of the accounts from Jamaica; and the accounts of shipping inwards and outwards are similarly defective for the periods 1837-41 and 1842-46. But the stated values of the Imports and Exports of all the Colonies enumerated may be compared collectively for the quinquennial periods 1832-36 and 1842-46; as in the table subjoined.

#### QUINQUENNIAL AVERAGES.

Groups.	Imports.		Exports.	
	1832-36.	1842-46.	1832-36.	1842-46.
	£	£	£	£
North American .....	4,218,294	4,847,995	3,312,965	4,188,077
West Indian.....	4,534,501	4,511,649	7,596,397	5,496,211
African.....	657,365	1,039,139	497,263	669,846
East Indian .....	1,035,356	2,259,036	913,085	1,648,202
Australian.....	1,296,392	2,189,982	789,135	1,931,132
Totals...	11,741,908	14,847,801	13,108,845	13,933,468

These were both periods of comparatively low prices; and were in other respects commercially similar. But the comparison thus instituted cannot (even assuming the perfect correctness of the accounts forming its basis) be received as affording an accurate indication of the commercial progress of

the Colonies referred to. As before stated, there are several disturbing influences to be allowed for: 1. A part of the Imports of each of these colonies represents expenditure by the home government;\* and this part has been greater in some Colonies (in proportion to their commerce) than in others; and has also varied in amount from time to time. 2. Into several of the Colonies importations of capital of large (but unascertained) amount have taken place. And 3. The population of each group, without exception, has during the period in view been augmented, in different degrees, by immigration;† the North American and Australian from the United Kingdom; the West Indian from India, Africa, and Madeira; the East Indian (Ceylon and Mauritius) from India, and even the African to some extent: the Coast settlements from the interior,‡ and the Cape Colony from Europe.

As a rule, it would seem that in the intertropical Colonies the Exports exceed the Imports, notwithstanding the addition made to the latter by the expenditure of the home government; but in Ceylon and Mauritius it was not so, either in 1832-36 or in 1842-46, apparently in consequence of the

\* The amount of this expenditure may be assumed not to fall short, on an average, of £2,000,000 per annum. During the years 1835-36 and 1843-44, it appears from official returns to have been as under:—

	In 1835-36.		In 1843-44.
	£		£
In the North American Colonies .....	382,734	.....	736,691
„ West Indian Colonies .....	605,669	.....	593,834
„ African Coast Settlements .....	38,347	.....	51,421
„ Cape Colony .....	242,907	.....	300,566
„ Mauritius .....	78,283	.....	92,302
„ Ceylon .....	133,804	.....	112,152
„ Australian Colonies (including Convict expenditure) .....	546,246	.....	545,350
	<u>£2,027,990</u>		<u>£2,432,316</u>

S.P. 632 of 1840; and 680 of 1846.

† At the same time the number of white inhabitants of the intertropical Colonies would appear to have been decreasing; but the doubtful character of the earlier returns, and the imperfection of those obtained of late years, leave this part of the subject somewhat doubtful.

‡ Chiefly by the capture and re-landing of slaves. And see B.B. (printed) 1847, pp. 198, 203.

importation of capital, and of supplies of food for immigrant labourers.

In the Colonies without the tropics, immigration, the importation of capital, and the expenditure of the home government combine to cause the Imports to exceed the Exports; and to this rule the only exception exhibited in the appended tables is Newfoundland; which is rather a fishing station than a colony.

Also, it is not unworthy of notice that both the Imports and the Exports of the Colonies vary greatly in value from year to year; that the variations are greatest in the inter-tropical Colonies; and that during the period in view they have been most remarkable in the West Indies.

The shipping accounts would, at the first glance, seem to afford more satisfactory results than those of Imports and Exports. As to Canada, we find the annual quantity of shipping inwards, which averaged 226,600 tons in 1827-31, at an average of 520,000 tons in 1842-46. And a similar comparison for each of the Colonies in the North American Group gives nearly the same result—except as to Newfoundland, where, though the Imports and Exports have increased most rapidly, the shipping inwards and outwards has increased most slowly. Here, however, we are reminded that the shipping entering and clearing at the ports of this group affords a very imperfect index to the extent of its commerce: the exportation of vessels built in the Colonies, and the entry of vessels bringing immigrants, much disturbing the accounts; besides that the trade over the land frontier, from ports in the United States, has been partially supplanting that carried on by sea.

The shipping accounts for Jamaica are too imperfect to afford ground for any inference whatever. For the rest of the Sugar Colonies in the West Indian Group we find the shipping inwards increased between 1827-31 and 1842-46 only from 392,900 to 411,000 tons; and in the latter period there were

)

some immigrant vessels included. But the shipping inwards to the Bahamas increased in the same interval from 36,400 to 49,100 tons—and to Honduras from 15,200 to 26,000 tons.

The shipping engaged in the trade of the African Coast settlements has apparently increased rather less than the value of the trade itself. That entering at and clearing from the Cape appears to have increased rapidly, but with considerable variations, which may be attributed mainly to the effect of the coffee duties at home between 1838 and 1842.

For Ceylon, and Mauritius, as well as for the Australian Colonies, the shipping accounts are materially affected by immigration during the latter half of the period in view; but allowing for this disturbance of the test, it confirms, in each case, the inference of commercial progress, more or less rapid, deduced as to each from the accounts of Imports and Exports.

But though a precise general statement, or comparison, of the commercial progress of these colonies is precluded by the absence of data essential alike to its accuracy and its completeness, enough has been stated not only to show that during the period in view each group had a different rate of progress, but also to indicate, in each case, the nature and (though roughly) the comparative extent of the difference.

It is apparent that the period in view has, throughout, been, for the older Colonies, one of transition, painful and embarrassing in proportion to their reliance upon protective legislation; and that their advancement has thus, for the time, been materially retarded—that in the progress of this transition the intertropical Colonies of the West have been gradually supplanted in the home market by those of the East—that the most recent extensions of our Colonial Empire have been successful beyond all precedent—and, generally, that there is a remarkable coincidence of the condition and rate of progress of the Colonies enumerated with the order of their arrangement as suggested by mere geographical position. Omitting the West Indian Sugar Colonies as being (whether

we regard their recent depression as indicative of a state of transition or of one of decline) in some degree exceptional, the least rapidly progressive group, during the twenty years in view, has obviously been the North American, and the most so the Australian: these occupying, respectively, the north-western and south-eastern extremities of the chain. There is also a notable contrast between these two groups with respect to their natural resources, and the means of their progress. The contrasts of climate, soil, and produce have already been adverted to. The only article obtained from the soil of the North American Group and largely exported has been timber, and the exportation of that has been maintained, for the most part, by British protective duties. On the other hand, the staple produce of the Australian Group—wool—can scarcely be said to have derived any encouragement from British protection. Down to 1844 it was admitted free of duty, while foreign wool bore a small tax; but since that year there has been entire freedom of competition, and the prosperity of the Australian wool trade has since not only continued but increased in such a manner as to assure every observer of its perfect independence of legislative aid.

Leaving the Australian Colonies, and looking to the west and north, we find Ceylon next in locality, and also next in the order of its recent commercial progress. And a comparison of the data given as to Mauritius, and the Cape, respectively, with those relating to Ceylon, will show that these, too, fall into the same order of progression.

As the practical value of accurate statistical records shall become more apparent to the local governments of these various communities, we may hope to see the rate and method of their progress, and the true conditions of their commercial prosperity, more fully and clearly developed.

## APPENDIX



# APPENDIX.

## VARIATION OF TEMPERATURE IN THE BRITISH COLONIES.

The following table, compiled from the Temperature Tables of Professor Dove (published in the transactions of the British Association for 1847), exhibits the mean annual temperature, and the difference between the hottest and coldest months, as hitherto observed in most of our colonies. It may be hoped that in the course of a few years the materials for such a statement will become more perfect and trustworthy.

Colony.	Station.	Latitude.	Longitude.	Mean Annual Temperature.	Diff. H. and C. Months.	No. of Years observed.
Canada .....	Quebec .....	46° 48' N	71° 17' W	41.85	60.75	(a)
" .....	Montreal .....	45° 31' "	73° 35' "	45.76	58.56	10
Nova Scotia .....	Halifax .....	44° 39' "	63° 38' "	40.08	52.	2
Bermuda ..	—	32° 20' "	64° 50' "	67.40	19.98	1
Tortola .....	—	18° 27' "	64.40 "	79.40	5.87	3
Jamaica .....	Kingston .....	18. "	77. "	78.77	5.94	5
St. Kitts .....	—	17.44 "	64.49 "	81.27	6.17	1½
St. Vincent .....	Kingstown .....	13.8 "	60.37 "	80.25	3.73	—
Barbadoes .....	—	13.4 "	59.37 "	81.32 (b)	4.52	—
British Guiana .....	Demerara .....	6.45 "	58.2 "	80.71	6.50	1½
" .....	Rio Berbice .....	6.29 "	56. "	81.56	5.94	1
Falkland Islands .....	—	52. S	61 "	47.23	18.59	1
Sierra Leone .....	Freetown .....	8° 30' N	13° 10' "	79.33	5	—
St. Helena .....	—	15.55 S	5.43 "	61.40	9.17	5
Cape of Good Hope ..	Cape Town .....	33.56 "	18.28 E	66.47	18.39	6½
Ceylon .....	Colombo .....	6.57 N	80. "	80.75	6.48	1
" .....	Kandy .....	7.17 "	80.49 "	72.78	3.98	3
New South Wales ...	Port Jackson ...	33.50 S	151.10 "	65.81	21.09	11½
South Australia .....	Adelaide .....	34.35 "	138.45 "	68.45	30.19	1
Port Phillip ..	Melbourne .....	38.18 "	144.30 "	57.04	18.93	2
Van Diemen's Land ..	Hobart Town ..	42.53 "	147.28 "	52.37 (c)	22.89	1

(a) Silliman's American Journal.

(b) Schomburgk's History of Barbadoes, p. 30. From 487 observations.

(c) The mean annual temperature of London, as established by daily observations continued for fifty years, is 50°·83 Far.; and the mean difference between the hottest and coldest months 26°·74. [Thompson's Annuals, 1818.] For Edinburgh (by 17 years' daily observation) the annual mean is 47°·13; and the variation 21°·31. [Dove.] And for Dublin (by six years' daily observation) the annual mean is 49°·05; and the variation 19°·74. [Cotte.] Observations not carried over, at least, five years continuously, are, of course, to be regarded as somewhat doubtful.

## NORTH AMERICAN GROUP.

[Abbreviations used in references to authorities: B.B. for *Blue Books*—S.P. for *Sessional Paper*—R.T. for *Revenue Tables*.]

## CANADA.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ —	£ 1,686,166	£ 1,233,907	£ 1,504,914	£ 1,703,626	£ 1,532,153
EXPORTS	—	—	1,447,485	1,155,404	1,195,516	1,266,135

AUTHORITIES.—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832(a)	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 1,567,719	£ 1,665,144	£ 1,063,643	£ 1,601,503	£ 2,031,769	£ 1,585,955
EXPORTS	952,463	965,026	1,018,922	1,023,609	1,212,980	1,034,600

AUTHORITIES.—1832-33: R.T. 1834: S.P. 727, II. 1847. 1835-36: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 1,660,253	£ 1,534,276	£ 2,229,927	£ 1,994,917	£ 2,022,521	£ 1,888,378
EXPORTS	1,012,843	1,091,345	1,217,554	1,739,055	1,998,818	1,411,927

AUTHORITY.—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 1,984,545	£ 1,243,111	£ 2,493,458	£ 2,639,678	£ 2,510,869	£ 2,174,332
EXPORTS	1,412,022	1,441,936	1,809,844	2,282,998	2,151,679	1,819,695

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-46: B.B.

(a) The accounts of 1832, for the Port of Quebec, particularly as to the exports, appear to be defective; and this is ascribed to interruption of business by the prevalence of the cholera at the port, in that year.

## CANADA.

## SHIPPING.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons
INWARDS . { Quebec .	—	183,481	236,565	223,005	263,523	226,643
Montreal	Not a port of entry till 1831.					
OUTWARDS { Quebec .	—	191,199	240,399	225,515	255,858	228,242
Montreal	Not a port of entry till 1831.					

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons
INWARDS . { Quebec .	261,915	246,071	296,550	324,142	357,148	297,165
Montreal	27,453	30,754	20,259	22,873	22,289	24,725
OUTWARDS { Quebec .	262,846	248,933	298,860	327,097	365,454	300,638
Montreal	27,864	30,754	21,136	22,601	22,701	25,011

AUTHORITIES.—1832-34: R.T. 1835-6: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons
INWARDS . { Quebec .	326,014	344,077	369,185	441,818	440,371	384,293
Montreal	22,668	14,441	24,311	31,266	50,277	28,592
OUTWARDS { Quebec .	333,330	352,707	383,349	460,974	448,839	395,839
Montreal	23,234	15,500	24,619	31,857	51,789	29,399

AUTHORITY.—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons
INWARDS . { Quebec .	308,806	450,168	460,480	576,541	568,225	472,844
Montreal	43,156	35,682	49,635	51,848	55,566	47,177
OUTWARDS { Quebec .	307,622	457,128	464,306	584,540	572,373	477,193
Montreal	44,424	36,048	48,956	(a)	(a)	—

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-6: B.B.

(a) No return of tonnage outwards is given in the B.B. for these years.

## NOVA SCOTIA AND CAPE BRETON

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ —	£ —	£ 985,430	£ 1,405,254	£ 1,529,912	£ 1,306,865
EXPORTS	—	—	549,811	713,162	901,074	721,349

AUTHORITY,—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 1,537,606	£ 1,097,635	£ 710,628	£ 725,092	£ 1,043,029	£ 1,022,798
EXPORTS	982,789	962,380	895,951	858,251	826,324	905,139

AUTHORITIES.—1832-33: B.B. 1834: S.P. 737, II., 1847. 1835-36: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 989,422	£ 1,164,003	£ 1,511,080	£ 1,564,505	£ 1,680,658	£ 1,381,933
EXPORTS	827,674	974,221	1,160,233	1,193,068	1,343,079	1,099,655

AUTHORITY.—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 1,213,859	£ 943,774	£ 1,056,055	£ 827,179	£ 880,262	£ 984,225
EXPORTS	947,061	755,115	743,686	662,465	729,655	767,596

AUTHORITIES.—1842-46: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-46: B.B.

NOVA SCOTIA AND CAPE BRETON. *SHIPPING.*

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 129,027	Tons —	Tons 135,126	Tons 186,716	Tons 216,053	Tons 166,730
OUTWARDS	153,813	—	144,528	218,707	234,967	188,003

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES
INWARDS	Tons 216,083	Tons 271,995	Tons 194,246	Tons 234,614	Tons 327,427	Tons 248,873
OUTWARDS	222,374	302,201	206,398	243,796	344,659	263,885

AUTHORITIES.—1832-34: B.B. 1835-6: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 297,112	Tons 283,199	Tons 302,998	Tons 305,980	Tons 333,939	Tons 304,645
OUTWARDS	314,318	340,260	327,283	333,531	350,840	333,246

AUTHORITY.—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 329,246	Tons 311,782	Tons 320,280	Tons 373,576	Tons 569,130	Tons 380,802
OUTWARDS	333,620	319,654	329,865	386,857	418,054	357,610

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-6: B.B.

## NEW BRUNSWICK.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ —	£ 643,311	£ 638,076	£ 693,561	£ 603,870	£ 644,704
EXPORTS	—	457,855	514,219	570,307	427,318	492,424

AUTHORITY,—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 704,059	£ 694,599	£ 781,167	£ 898,764	£ 1,207,059	£ 857,129
EXPORTS	541,800	558,527	578,787	657,544	681,355	603,602

AUTHORITIES.—1832-34: B.B. 1835-36: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 1,006,478	£ 1,056,525	£ 1,365,517	£ 1,134,086	£ 1,107,019	£ 1,133,925
EXPORTS	718,196	817,047	909,641	742,634	777,950	793,093

AUTHORITY—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 467,570	£ 570,454	£ 815,738	£ 1,084,151	£ 1,036,016	£ 794,785
EXPORTS	439,051	541,707	603,196	787,624	886,763	651,668

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-6: B.B.

## NEW BRUNSWICK.

## SHIPPING.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
INWARDS .	234,952	316,733	249,754	351,174	257,616	282,043
OUTWARDS	252,970	286,015	309,429	348,546	266,634	292,718

AUTHORITY—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
INWARDS .	310,395	304,892	277,581	353,983	356,459	320,662
OUTWARDS	315,277	316,300	300,864	380,100	370,478	336,203

AUTHORITIES.—1832-4: B.B. 1835-6: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
INWARDS .	348,735	381,913	399,610	399,469	357,604	377,466
OUTWARDS	366,841	390,166	442,116	451,388	405,702	411,242

AUTHORITY—S.F. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
INWARDS .	274,024	378,773	432,850	466,227	549,083	420,191
OUTWARDS	299,642	384,325	439,177	499,480	588,135	442,151

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-6: B.B.

## NEWFOUNDLAND.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ —	£ —	£ 819,399	£ 768,417	£ 829,354	£ 805,723
EXPORTS	—	—	690,309	685,682	803,534	726,508

AUTHORITY,—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 763,623	£ 664,076	£ 612,441	£ 643,930	£ 651,079	£ 667,029
EXPORTS	709,589	618,992	706,620	773,032	837,711	729,188

AUTHORITIES.—1832-34: B.B. 1835-36: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 791,249	£ 645,557	£ 711,183	£ 773,308	£ 772,708	£ 738,801
EXPORTS	911,267	790,373	904,559	975,526	969,474	910,239

AUTHORITY—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 757,212	£ 756,968	£ 801,597	£ 801,330	£ 802,247	£ 783,870
EXPORTS	850,838	961,054	915,826	939,436	759,103	885,251

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-6: B.B.

## NEWFOUNDLAND.

## SHIPPING.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 90,380	Tons —	Tons 83,090	Tons 94,423	Tons 96,564	Tons 91,114
OUTWARDS	88,963	—	89,193	92,382	92,498	90,764

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES
INWARDS	Tons 92,344	Tons 95,842	Tons —	Tons 102,997	Tons 99,598	Tons 97,695
OUTWARDS	86,304	90,960	98,422	100,799	97,582	94,813

AUTHORITIES.—1832-34: B.B. 1835-6: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 106,666	Tons 94,961	Tons 91,738	Tons 113,216	Tons 113,815	Tons 104,079
OUTWARDS	105,737	93,762	91,930	108,346	111,368	102,228

AUTHORITY.—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES
INWARDS	Tons 118,639	Tons 127,131	Tons 130,220	Tons 130,147	Tons 135,900	Tons 128,407
OUTWARDS	110,359	119,298	122,261	124,102	131,420	121,488

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-6: B.B.

## PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ —	£ 63,615	£ 46,015	£ 56,429	£ 63,826	£ 57,471
EXPORTS	—	62,165	36,348	33,588	42,535	43,659

AUTHORITY,—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 70,068	£ 93,336	£ 111,595	£ 61,146	£ 90,773	£ 85,383
EXPORTS	31,739	35,064	41,191	47,215	46,973	40,436

AUTHORITIES.—1832-34: B.B. 1835-36: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 82,907	£ 94,213	£ 132,973	£ 139,903	£ 126,671	£ 115,333
EXPORTS	35,741	59,438	72,780	59,507	70,690	59,631

AUTHORITY—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 101,311	£ 108,659	£ 94,090	£ 121,937	£ 127,920	£ 110,783
EXPORTS	59,596	55,938	59,048	70,204	74,551	63,867

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-6: B.B.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND. *SHIPPING.*

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons —	Tons 13,318	Tons 17,556	Tons 18,530	Tons 16,123	Tons 16,381
OUTWARDS	—	20,559	17,880	19,990	22,085	20,128

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 14,782	Tons 17,699	Tons 22,730	Tons 11,792	Tons 13,762	Tons 16,153
OUTWARDS	18,680	21,668	26,240	13,636	14,264	18 897

AUTHORITIES.—1832-34: B.B. 1835-6: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 15,306	Tons 27,780	Tons 23,889	Tons 32,082	Tons 28,729	Tons 25,557
OUTWARDS	16,934	31,384	33,643	38,161	34,665	30,957

AUTHORITY.—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 34,367	Tons 32,972	Tons 37,574	Tons —(a)	Tons —(a)	Tons 34,971
OUTWARDS	39,115	37,981	40,263	—(a)	—(a)	39,119

AUTHORITY.—S.P. 679, 1846.

(a) No return of tonnage Inwards or Outwards in the B.B. for these years.

## WEST INDIAN GROUP

## BAHAMAS.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
IMPORTS	231,384	338,700	97,150	137,853	91,561	179,329
EXPORTS	129,393	122,426	76,977	49,808	74,658	90,652

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
IMPORTS	117,759	123,735	142,039	136,798	153,671	134,800
EXPORTS	71,173	75,875	92,204	112,980	93,721	89,190

AUTHORITIES.—1832-34: B.B. 1835-36: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
IMPORTS	210,136	165,367	149,253	138,371	117,949	156,269
EXPORTS	110,934	91,034	100,891	92,441	99,370	98,934

AUTHORITY.—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
IMPORTS	138,204	117,877	112,758	144,074	139,718	130,526
EXPORTS	72,006	66,085	85,867	86,453	69,233	75,868

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-46: B.B.

## BAHAMAS.

## SHIPPING.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 8,435	Tons 52,389	Tons 47,946	Tons 24,507	Tons 48,765	Tons 36,408
OUTWARDS	9,352	52,129	48,978	22,506	54,264	37,445

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 46,251	Tons 28,377	Tons 34,150	Tons 56,576	Tons 59,339	Tons 44,938
OUTWARDS	36,570	36,713	31,697	54,502	53,299	42,556

AUTHORITIES.—1832-34: B.B. 1835-6: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 25,064	Tons 23,526	Tons 24,205	Tons 40,685	Tons 39,798	Tons 30,655
OUTWARDS	23,894	23,317	24,499	38,943	29,312	27,993

AUTHORITY.—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 36,194	Tons 31,254	Tons 57,373	Tons 68,504	Tons 52,662	Tons 49,197
OUTWARDS	34,659	30,450	54,429	63,940	56,214	47,938

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-6: B.B.

## JAMAICA.

The Blue Books from Jamaica are more defective, particularly in the earlier years of the period in view, than those from any other colony. I cannot find any statement of the values of the Exports prior to 1832; but the following table compiled from the Supplement to Part VI, of the Revenue Tables (p. 31) exhibits the quantities of the staple produce of the island returned as exported in each of the ten years 1827-36.

SUGAR.				COFFEE.	SUGAR.				COFFEE.
	Hogsheads	Tierces	Barrels	Lbs.		Hogsheads	Tierces	Barrels	Lbs.
1827	82.096	7.435	2.770	25,741.520	1832	91.453	9.987	4.600	19,815,010
1828	94.912	9.428	3.024	22,216,780	1833	78,375	9,325	4,074	9,866,060
1829	91.364	9.193	3.204	22,234,640	1834	77,801	9,860	3,055	17,725,731
1830	93.882	8.739	3.645	22,256,950	1835	71,017	8,840	8,455	10,593,018
1831	88.409	9.053	3.492	14,055,350	1836	61,644	7,707	2,497	13,446,053
	450,663	43,848	16,135	106,505,240		380,290	45,719	22,681	71,445,872

From the contents of this table the value of the Exports in the five years 1827-31 may be roughly inferred thus: If the mean proportional dimensions of the hogshead, tierce, and barrel, be assumed to be, respectively, 52½, 42, and 36. (their customary content in gallons), the Export of Sugar in 1827-31 would be to the export in 1832-36 as 26 to 22.6 nearly; and the average value of the exports (as stated below) having been in 1832-36, £2,975,260, the average value of those of 1827-31, if they followed the proportion of the quantity of Sugar, would be about £2,586,000. But the average price of West Indian Sugar in London in 1827-31 was only 28s. 11d. per cwt.; and in 1832-36 it was 32s. 2d. The difference of value would therefore go far to balance that of quantity. On taking into account the exports of Coffee, the other chief staple, we also find that the prices of British Plantation Coffee in 1832-36 were from 80 to 100 per cent. higher than in 1827-31.(a) Thus it would appear that the Exports of Jamaica were but little less valuable in 1832-36 than in 1827-31, notwithstanding the marked decrease of their quantity.

## 1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
IMPORTS.	1,593,317	1,519,452	1,589,720	2,025,068	2,114,141	1,768,339
EXPORTS.	2,814,308	2,489,797	3,148,797	3,101,783	3,321,516	2,975,260

AUTHORITIES.—1832-34: R.T. 1835-36: S.P. 679, 1840.

(a) Tooke's History of Prices, Vol. II, p. 399.

## JAMAICA.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
IMPORTS	1,961,713	1,881,224	2,249,125	2,192,176	1,339,904	1,924,828
EXPORTS	2,840,362	3,305,005	2,487,915	2,212,094	1,912,815	2,551,638

AUTHORITY.—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845(a)	1846(a)	AVERAGES.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
IMPORTS	1,881,200	1,698,850	1,478,005	594,693	623,966	1,255,342
EXPORTS	2,232,586	1,849,224	1,609,620	2,257,204	1,508,713	1,891,469

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-46: B.B.

## SHIPPING.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
INWARDS	—	137,186	124,202	120,721	—	127,366
OUTWARDS	—	135,101	130,388	130,747	—	132,078

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.(b)

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
INWARDS	89,187	67,971	127,521	103,856	112,075	88,122
OUTWARDS	74,488	59,452	131,486	121,042	119,066	101,106

AUTHORITIES.—B.B. and R.T.

(a) The B.B. from Jamaica for the years 1845 and 1846, whence the amounts above stated for those years are taken, are so ill made up that I fear very little reliance can be placed upon them.

(b) For the last ten years of the period in view the shipping accounts are either very imperfect or altogether wanting in the B.B. In the Sessional Paper, No. 679 of 1846 (pp. 40 to 56) the reader will find a detailed account of the shipping entered and cleared at each of ten ports in the island for the years 1835-44, inclusive.

## LEEWARD ISLANDS.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES	
IMPORTS	Antigua ...	£ 75,801	£ 100,460	£ 87,720	£ 62,317	£ 94,782	£ 84,216
	St. Kitt's ...	—	—	59,520	41,537	—	50,528
	Dominica ...	66,300	81,506	86,343	49,615	81,835	73,119
	Nevis .....	—	—	—	—	27,634	27,634
	Virgin Isles	Apparently included in the returns from St. Kitt's.					
	Montserrat .	17,520	—	18,804	17,781	—	18,035
EXPORTS	Antigua ...	152,174	530,293	348,766	240,088	294,645	313,193
	St. Kitt's ...	—	—	149,560	198,723	—	174,144
	Dominica ...	115,800	154,522	118,561	145,962	118,761	130,721
	Nevis .....	—	—	—	—	58,904	58,904
	Virgin Isles	Apparently included in the returns from St. Kitt's.					
	Montserrat .	34,667	—	43,525	29,729	—	35,973

AUTHORITIES—B.B.

1832-36.

		1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES		
		£	£	£	£	£	£		
IMPORTS	Antigua .....	73,716	69,945	64,753	215,700	201,889	125,060	£ 346,707	
	St. Kitt's ...	—	44,497	63,018	126,375	124,610	88,625		
	Dominica ...	71,627	53,506	68,188	72,046	86,351	70,143		
	Nevis .....	20,119	18,567	27,866	48,554	41,869	31,195		
	Virgin Isles .	—	6,219	4,138	9,760	17,349	9,366		
	Montserrat ...	—	22,802	20,123	25,021	20,129	22,018		
EXPORTS	Antigua .....	188,690	206,464	385,386	253,155	200,751	246,889	£ 597,461	
	St. Kitt's ...	—	105,267	156,013	141,561	161,411	141,063		
	Dominica ...	125,854	139,808	112,590	51,050	83,031	102,466		
	Nevis .....	42,157	53,888	72,200	45,768	45,704	51,943		
	Virgin Isles .	—	31,226	38,009	23,338	23,510	29,020		
	Montserrat ...	—	21,880	37,567	22,268	22,908	26,080		

AUTHORITIES—1832-34: B.B. 1835-6: S.P. 679, 1846.

## LEEWARD ISLANDS.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	
IMPORTS	Antigua ...	172,263	226,953	247,572	213,954	215,529	215,250
	St. Kitt's...	148,421	116,372	167,641	163,705	163,188	151,865
	Dominica .	75,287	63,038	74,184	76,753	68,763	71,605
	Nevis .....	44,151	58,120	59,203	45,156	38,817	49,089
	Virgin Isles	14,548	12,728	11,921	17,822	12,301	13,864
	Montserrat	19,300	23,251	23,397	26,461	23,578	23,197
EXPORTS	Antigua ...	99,424	402,444	381,769	472,014	314,896	334,109
	St. Kitt's...	130,282	193,738	204,555	245,965	156,220	186,152
	Dominica .	84,542	127,500	93,715	87,391	55,796	89,788
	Nevis .....	21,565	43,911	77,885	62,079	34,865	48,061
	Virgin Isles	26,019	13,528	16,120	14,508	22,600	18,555
	Montserrat	13,800	37,219	29,149	31,634	36,522	29,644

AUTHORITY—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	
IMPORTS	Antigua ...	179,155	243,101	254,094	267,237	213,963	231,510
	St. Kitt's...	128,829	134,961	151,450	180,000	169,996	153,047
	Dominica .	63,770	59,411	67,656	63,947	77,835	66,423
	Nevis .....	26,580	24,914	30,194	39,888	36,778	31,670
	Virgin Isles	9,683	12,466	7,945	9,200	9,256	9,750
	Montserrat	26,536	23,572	20,523	26,275	17,967	22,974
EXPORTS	Antigua ...	296,734	403,474	444,137	295,492	177,520	323,471
	St. Kitt's...	170,316	133,386	190,173	188,612	137,502	163,997
	Dominica .	71,717	60,773	72,718	75,115	78,706	71,679
	Nevis .....	32,221	44,251	64,578	55,931	49,501	49,296
	Virgin Isles	15,060	14,845	13,754	14,805	8,005	13,298
	Montserrat	27,562	20,967	25,785	18,925	15,976	21,843

AUTHORITIES—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1846-6: B.B.

## LEEWARD ISLANDS.

## SHIPPING.

1827-31.

		1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES		
		Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons		
INWARDS	Antigua ...	21,668	34,311	33,214	25,178	32,400	29,354	Tons. 86,319	
	St. Kitt's ...	—	26,647	29,152	20,951	—	25,583		
	Dominica ...	—	17,749	20,944	11,191	11,709	15,398		
	Nevis .....	—	—	—	—	—	10,000		
	Virgin Isles	Apparently included with St. Kitt's.							
OUTWARDS	Montserrat .	5,131	—	6,998	5,824	—	5,984	Tons. 86,700	
	Antigua ...	21,989	29,086	33,062	26,220	32,522	28,589		
	St. Kitt's ...	—	26,021	27,681	26,433	—	26,711		
	Dominica ...	—	17,086	21,165	12,427	11,256	15,483		
	Nevis .....	—	—	—	—	18,877	10,000 (a)		
	Virgin Isles	Apparently included with St. Kitt's.							
	Montserrat .	4,319	—	6,858	6,576	—	5,917		

AUTHORITY—B.B.

1832-36.

		1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES		
		Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons		
INWARDS	Antigua .....	27,992	24,839	33,654	34,061	27,945	29,698	Tons. 80,860	
	St. Kitt's ...	—	17,671	16,964	18,384	15,532	18,135		
	Dominica ...	15,943	12,712	14,117	16,331	13,044	14,429		
	Nevis .....	—	8,266	9,665	11,180	8,487	9,399		
	Virgin Isles .	—	3,557	3,633	2,983	4,395	3,642		
OUTWARDS	Montserrat ...	—	5,509	6,134	5,165	5,422	5,557	Tons. 81,881	
	Antigua .....	27,819	22,790	32,002	33,325	28,952	28,977		
	St. Kitt's ...	—	16,510	17,304	19,606	15,055	17,118		
	Dominica ...	18,446	13,466	15,488	16,002	13,166	15,313		
	Nevis .....	—	17,383	10,524	11,256	8,746	11,977		
		Virgin Isles .	—	3,658	3,379	2,728	3,615	3,345	
		Montserrat ...	—	4,755	6,292	4,873	4,676	5,149	

AUTHORITIES—1832-34: B.B. 1835-6: S.P. 679, 1846.

(a) The only return from Nevis during this period is that for the year 1831; and it gives an amount so much beyond the average of the returns for previous and subsequent years that, in the absence of confirmatory evidence, it cannot safely be regarded as otherwise than exceptional. The amount stated in the average column is an estimate formed upon the returns of 1824-5, and those afterwards stated.

## LEEWARD ISLANDS.

## SHIPPING.

1837-41.

		1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES		
		Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons		
INWARDS .	Antigua ...	24,562	26,780	36,311	39,080	37,384	32,823	Tons. 76,897	
	St. Kitt's ...	15,532	14,988	18,464	20,722	21,790	18,299		
	Dominica .	7,919	7,943	9,587	12,648	13,030	10,225		
	Nevis .....	6,503	7,267	7,270	6,610	5,841	6,698		
	Virgin Isles .	2,878	2,594	3,311	4,051	4,079	3,382		
	Montserrat .	4,891	6,197	6,615	5,003	4,647	5,470		
OUTWARDS	Antigua ...	27,457	29,024	35,927	40,427	30,038	32,574	Tons. 75,969	
	St. Kitt's ...	15,055	14,352	18,697	20,611	21,241	17,991		
	Dominica .	7,311	8,008	9,594	11,667	12,765	9,073		
	Nevis .....	6,864	6,790	7,793	8,010	6,154	7,122		
	Virgin Isles .	3,043	2,318	3,468	3,855	4,494	3,435		
	Montserrat .	4,991	6,341	6,518	5,729	5,292	5,774		

AUTHORITY—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

		1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES		
		Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons		
INWARDS .	Antigua ...	36,019	34,744	39,894	43,907	31,659	37,244	Tons. 90,091	
	St. Kitt's ...	18,442	24,125	21,523	25,082	23,452	22,524		
	Dominica .	13,520	13,586	14,783	13,991	13,102	13,796		
	Nevis .....	5,931	7,622	7,855	7,636	7,875	7,383		
	Virgin Isles .	3,447	3,704	4,145	4,318	3,987	3,920		
	Montserrat .	5,334	5,699	5,476	5,266	4,348	5,224		
OUTWARDS	Antigua ...	27,991	32,250	41,145	46,677	29,994	35,611	Tons. 88,797	
	St. Kitt's ...	18,694	23,352	22,355	25,942	22,994	22,667		
	Dominica .	13,366	13,561	14,595	13,987	12,925	13,686		
	Nevis .....	6,755	8,393	7,806	8,143	7,761	7,771		
	Virgin Isles .	3,596	3,361	4,212	4,153	3,803	3,825		
	Montserrat .	5,598	5,600	5,264	5,230	4,493	5,237		

AUTHORITIES—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-6: B.B.

## WINDWARD ISLANDS.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	
IMPORTS	Trinidad ...	428,849	447,109	434,830	250,255	300,567	372,382
	Grenada ...	83,116	85,863	164,313	72,652	79,002	96,989
	St. Vincent.	187,764	178,135	185,303	148,307	252,875	190,476
	St. Lucia ...	—	97,807	116,710	212,516	64,885	122,979
	Tobago ...	132,307	99,932	108,192	77,114	117,242	106,957
EXPORTS	Trinidad ...	448,813	478,870	451,628	199,082	244,392	364,557
	Grenada ...	347,906	557,689	359,427	263,264	218,352	349,327
	St. Vincent.	481,637	697,935 <sup>a</sup>	481,579	338,045	279,189	455,677
	St. Lucia ...	—	130,329	118,946	126,610	83,066	114,687
	Tobago ...	125,137	210,301	152,352	110,790	160,291	151,774
							£889,783
							£1,436,022

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	
IMPORTS	Trinidad ...	260,192	307,075	308,178	323,454	489,544	337,688
	Grenada ...	78,991	73,846	77,078	139,044	176,509	109,093
	St. Vincent.	219,924	165,939	156,433	157,803	175,304	175,080
	St. Lucia ...	70,572	47,271	58,602	81,771	93,738	70,390
	Tobago ...	105,712	75,427	67,489	73,939	89,336	80,380
EXPORTS	Trinidad ...	279,007	341,571	394,541	392,036	517,015	384,834
	Grenada ...	153,175	294,229	275,768	211,706	216,823	229,340
	St. Vincent.	285,454	301,511	424,350	335,102	370,039	343,091
	St. Lucia ...	75,482	72,144	87,136	90,431	79,474	80,933
	Tobago ...	123,496	90,083	114,262	106,465	200,253	126,911
							£772,631
							£1,165,109

AUTHORITIES.—1832-34: B.B. 1835-36: R.P. 679, 1846.

<sup>(a)</sup> The B.B. for St. Vincent, 1828, states the total value of the Exports for that year at £897,935, an amount so widely differing from the amounts for the years preceding and following that the statement obviously needs confirmation. The principal item in the account at the foot of which this extraordinary amount appears, the value of the exports to Great Britain, is stated at £735,506. On turning to the B.B. for the following year (1829) I find the corresponding item stated at £433,964; and on further comparing the lists of parcels against which these two sums are written, the chief articles appear to be as follows:—

1828.  
SUGAR.....19,663 hhds.  
311 tierces  
144 barrels  
MOLASSES...5478 pns.  
217 hhds.  
54 barrels  
RUM.....29 hhds  
965 pns.  
ARROWROOT 926 boxes  
COTTON ..... 343 bales

1829.  
SUGAR.....17,055 hhds.  
319 tierces  
79 barrels  
MOLASSES...3859 pns  
19 tierces  
116 hhds.  
39 half-pns.  
3 barrels  
RUM.....3092 pns.  
147 hhds  
59 qr. casks  
ARROWROOT... 3 barrels  
836 boxes  
COTTON .....282 bales

The difference in quantity, thus shown, is clearly not sufficient to account for the apparent difference in value, assuming prices to have been the same, or nearly so. The prices of the articles enumerated were generally lower in 1829 than in 1828: the annual average price of Muscovado sugar per cwt. in London, having been, in 1828, 31s. 8d., and in 1829, 28s. 7d., (S.P. 400—1848,) and the price of rum differed in nearly the same proportion. Cotton was about the same price in both years. (Hist. Prices [1. 401—402.] But here there is clearly no sufficient ground for the enormous difference shown in the account; and as the retention of the sum stated would probably vitiate, altogether, by the error of a single figure, all the subsequent computations, I have ventured to reduce the sum total, by taking the exports to Great Britain at £233,506—a sum which nearly corresponds with that stated for 1829 (allowing for the difference of prices in the two years), and reduces the aggregate to the sum stated in the table.

## WINDWARD ISLANDS.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES		
	£	£	£	£	£	£		
IMPORTS	Trinidad . .	456,291	419,241	483,093	558,665	555,111	494,480	£1,022,743
	Grenada . .	149,840	139,223	171,923	133,764	150,902	149,130	
	St. Vincent	217,332	195,740	222,810	195,401	160,547	198,366	
	St. Lucia . .	117,215	85,570	97,590	80,516	72,997	90,777	
	Tobago . .	88,685	99,061	95,542	88,331	78,282	89,990	
EXPORTS	Trinidad . .	496,628	535,880	397,990	400,163	520,783	470,288	£1,218,929
	Grenada . .	213,002	277,440	215,737	190,428	161,948	211,711	
	St. Vincent	402,278	365,874	313,006	219,246	260,285	312,157	
	St. Lucia . .	86,207	94,798	90,164	94,177	107,525	94,574	
	Tobago . .	145,579	141,758	156,183	120,176	87,302	130,199	

£1,022,743

£1,218,929

AUTHORITY.—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

		1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES	
		£	£	£	£	£	£	
IMPORTS	Trinidad ..	400,093	444,085	456,657	485,359	559,872	469,213	£896,094
	Grenada ..	120,500	123,618	134,051	155,008	141,692	134,973	
	St. Vincent	152,790	124,561	151,537	157,484	170,598	151,356	
	St. Lucia .	65,756	63,852	82,791	83,751	93,788	78,027	
	Tobago . .	50,265	57,507	75,036	66,536	63,282	62,525	
EXPORTS	Trinidad ..	491,100	433,857	434,017	417,825	497,752	454,910	£994,660
	Grenada ..	144,127	141,135	123,654	121,442	132,075	132,486	
	St. Vincent	229,317	232,028	224,093	202,395	246,695	228,905	
	St. Lucia .	114,991	83,052	107,626	100,694	88,457	98,964	
	Tobago . .	84,561	73,980	88,655	83,936	65,837	79,396	

£896,094

£994,660

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-46: B.B.

## WINDWARD ISLANDS.

## SHIPPING.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES	
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	
INWARDS .	Trinidad .	41,585	46,619	55,715	38,165	45,787	45,574
	Grenada .	27,509	27,318	35,781	25,557	28,883	29,009
	St. Vincent	34,450	40,956	37,681	32,295	38,296	36,735
	St. Lucia .	—	17,749	20,944	20,558	20,382	19,908
	Tobago ..	12,951	13,762	17,179	13,945	15,252	14,617
OUTWARDS	Trinidad .	46,342	48,349	54,079	45,181	42,115	47,213
	Grenada .	26,096	28,068	35,414	30,671	27,345	29,536
	St. Vincent	32,134	36,186	37,628	34,055	36,786	35,357
	St. Lucia .	—	17,086	21,165	20,771	20,833	19,963
	Tobago ..	13,135	14,923	16,276	16,224	15,344	15,180

AUTHORITY—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES	
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	
INWARDS .	Trinidad .	38,860	37,403	41,149	40,963	46,766	41,028
	Grenada .	25,570	24,805	21,325	18,606	19,003	21,861
	St. Vincent	37,025	29,210	29,494	25,655	24,104	29,077
	St. Lucia .	15,943	12,712	14,117	16,331	13,044	14,429
	Tobago ...	16,981	12,413	11,634	11,641	11,955	12,924
OUTWARDS	Trinidad .	40,191	39,893	38,496	43,350	46,774	41,740
	Grenada .	24,914	24,269	20,929	20,554	16,591	21,451
	St. Vincent	33,776	31,523	27,944	27,289	25,689	29,244
	St. Lucia .	18,446	13,466	15,488	16,002	13,166	14,313
	Tobago ...	14,649	12,717	11,192	10,997	12,763	12,463

AUTHORITIES.—1832-34: B.B.—1835-36: S.P. 679, 1846

## WINDWARD ISLANDS.

## SHIPPING.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES	
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	
INWARDS .	Trinidad	51,758	46,965	52,867	62,107	65,645	55,868
	Grenada	20,429	19,080	19,219	20,324	23,637	20,537
	St. Vincent	26,251	23,386	26,812	21,647	25,186	24,656
	St. Lucia	12,823	12,647	11,259	11,464	13,870	12,412
	Tobago ...	13,937	10,172	10,491	10,398	10,775	11,154
OUTWARDS	Trinidad	52,491	48,127	53,102	60,535	65,647	55,980
	Grenada	18,923	21,215	19,872	20,164	23,801	22,795
	St. Vincent	26,030	25,694	28,169	22,606	26,314	25,762
	St. Lucia	14,808	11,278	11,569	12,121	11,728	12,300
	Tobago ..	12,123	10,390	10,394	10,835	10,978	10,944

AUTHORITY.—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES	
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	
INWARDS .	Trinidad...	58,459	61,054	60,334	59,010	—(a)	59,714
	Grenada...	21,197	24,845	23,630	29,487	27,876	25,345
	St. Vincent	27,136	24,391	23,677	26,031	27,041	25,655
	St. Lucia	14,222	11,029	13,102	13,610	13,020	12,996
	Tobago ...	7,343	9,350	10,828	9,825	9,025	9,274
OUTWARDS	Trinidad...	57,973	59,963	60,022	56,621	—(a)	58,644
	Grenada...	21,395	23,005	23,092	30,935	25,977	24,880
	St. Vincent	26,805	25,659	23,390	25,796	25,655	25,861
	St. Lucia	12,203	11,082	13,911	13,897	12,765	12,771
	Tobago ...	7,873	9,150	9,689	10,781	8,702	9,259

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-6: B.B.

(a) The return in the B.B. for 1846, runs from September 1845, to October 1846.

## BARBADOES.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 376,866	£ —	£ —	£ 369,122	£ —	£ 372,994
EXPORTS	557,423	—	—	776,695	—	667,059

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 481,610	£ 461,135	£ 449,790	£ 532,399	£ 665,135	£ 518,013
EXPORTS	408,363	553,628	736,006	675,346	734,699	621,608

AUTHORITIES.—1832-34: B.B. 1835-36: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 646,670	£ 739,561	£ 823,058	£ 643,826	£ 610,954	£ 692,813
EXPORTS	897,963	959,912	814,559	465,459	529,210	733,420

AUTHORITY.—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 609,254	£ 642,180	£ 618,028	£ 682,368	£ 631,267	£ 636,599
EXPORTS	551,984	679,802	681,598	691,309	773,405	675,619

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-6: B.B.

In the B.B. for 1828-29 the accounts are imperfectly stated; and no returns appear to have been made for 1831. The great hurricane which occurred in the last-mentioned year may account for the absence of returns, as well as for the falling off in the exports of 1832-33.

## BARBADOES.

## SHIPPING.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons. 50,776	Tons. —	Tons. —	Tons. 53,932	Tons. —	Tons. 52,354
OUTWARDS	45,652	—	—	56,345	—	50,998

AUTHORITY—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons. 79,005	Tons. 56,178	Tons. 72,395	Tons. 66,353	Tons. 62,990	Tons. 67,384
OUTWARDS	74,189	65,784	74,497	65,497	63,698	68,733

AUTHORITIES.—1832-4: B.B. 1835-6: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons. 73,856	Tons. 76,356	Tons. 83,689	Tons. 73,523	Tons. 80,832	Tons. 77,651
OUTWARDS	71,073	76,076	82,963	73,511	78,524	76,429

AUTHORITY—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons. 87,875	Tons. 99,869	Tons. 88,137	Tons. 94,542	Tons. 93,330	Tons. 92,750
OUTWARDS	82,571	100,284	84,468	93,773	90,310	90,281

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-6: B.B.

## BRITISH GUIANA

1827-31.

		1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES	
IMPORTS	Demerara & Essequibo.	£ 743,642	£ 709,805	£ 804,408	£ 734,528	£ 664,539	£ 731,343	} £865,940
	Berbice.....	113,869	131,545	131,778	—	161,177	134,592	
EXPORTS	Demerara & Essequibo.	1,895,621	1,739,440	1,884,065	1,835,704	1,556,142	1,782,194	} £2,088,355
	Berbice.....	298,145	319,797	282,868	—	323,837	306,161	

AUTHORITY—B.B.

1832-36.

		1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES	
IMPORTS.	Demerara & Essequibo.	£ 505,803	£ 541,438	£ 591,458	£ 627,334	£ 786,333	£ 610,473	} £747,934
	Berbice.....	172,931	133,379	111,695	122,733	146,571	137,461	
EXPORTS.	Demerara & Essequibo.	1,374,674	1,571,349	1,259,605	1,486,956	1,611,358	1,460,788	} £1,853,305
	Berbice.....	392,364	302,349	306,778	404,116	561,981	393,517	

AUTHORITIES—1832-34: D.B.—1835-6: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

		1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES	
IMPORTS	Demerara & Essequibo.	£ 832,932	£ 872,875	£ 1,051,616	£ 858,185	£ 774,745	£ 878,070	} £1,046,735
	Berbice. ....	161,764	216,285	190,796	151,192	123,290	168,665	
EXPORTS	Demerara & Essequibo.	1,340,257	1,346,510	1,109,209	1,564,602	994,441	1,271,003	} £1,606,675
	Berbice.....	387,837	393,756	304,737	391,606	200,426	335,672	

AUTHORITY—S.P. 679, 1846

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES	
IMPORTS	Demerara & Essequibo.	£ 609,286	£ 663,653	£ 610,310	£ 841,986	£ 1,144,176	£ 816,577
	Berbice.....	75,154	72,684	65,640			
EXPORTS	Demerara & Essequibo.	936,383	806,082	905,113	981,883	755,473	876,986
	Berbice.....	206,947	198,884	226,213			

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1844—1845-6: B.B.

## BRITISH GUIANA.

## SHIPPING.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES	
INWARDS .	Demerara & Essequibo	Tons. 86,445	Tons. 85,077	Tons. 92,805	Tons. 89,240	Tons. 88,665	Tons. 108,419
	Berbice ....	18,917	19,733	19,161	—	21,208	
OUTWARDS	Demerara & Essequibo	86,288	85,325	93,190	94,523	85,867	Tons. 108,466
	Berbice ....	16,896	21,260	19,430	—	20,128	

AUTHORITY—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES	
INWARDS .	Demerara & Essequibo	Tons. 84,166	Tons. 93,809	Tons. 90,221	Tons. 95,039	Tons. 88,909	Tons. 113,775
	Berbice ....	25,790	23,073	20,571	24,879	22,426	
OUTWARDS	Demerara & Essequibo	82,688	93,972	86,933	91,368	92,065	Tons. 113,475
	Berbice ...	26,324	24,390	20,753	25,945	23,941	

AUTHORITIES.—1832-4. B.B. 1835-6: S.P. 679, 1846.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons. 109,120	Tons. 117,554	Tons. 100,192	Tons. 111,846	Tons. 115,089	Tons. 110,760
OUTWARDS	102,996	116,572	101,499	116,501	114,669	110,447

AUTHORITY—S.P. 679, 1846.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons. 92,755	Tons. 92,206	Tons. 87,937	Tons. 109,984	Tons. 97,624	Tons. 96,161
OUTWARDS	93,735	92,392	85,948	104,194	96,457	94,545

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 679, 1846. 1845-6: B.B.

## HONDURAS.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
IMPORTS	313,502	233,756	244,464	234,379	278,627	260,945
EXPORTS	394,132	301,255	255,282	316,151	197,860	292,936

AUTHORITY,—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
IMPORTS	153,830	235,156	318,234	182,614	340,554	246,077
EXPORTS	182,267	242,330	286,800	267,811	493,115	294,464

AUTHORITY—B.B.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
IMPORTS	369,623	(a)	(a)	(a)	388,915	379,269
EXPORTS	345,305	(a)	(a)	(a)	(a)	—

AUTHORITY—B.B.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
IMPORTS	193,656	389,573	235,649	273,073	213,735	261,137
EXPORTS	322,140	429,353	323,819	281,850	332,988	338,030

AUTHORITY—B.B.

(a) The B.B. for Honduras contain no returns from which these blanks can be supplied.

## HONDURAS.

## SHIPPING.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 19,041	Tons 14,387	Tons 14,746	Tons 13,918	Tons 13,910	Tons 15,200
OUTWARDS	17,655	14,038	12,700	16,351	13,014	14,753

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 15,495	Tons 14,018	Tons 19,111	Tons 18,814	Tons 28,313	Tons 19,150
OUTWARDS	14,985	14,222	18,859	19,455	29,493	19,582

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 25,752	Tons (a)	Tons (a)	Tons (a)	Tons 21,863	Tons 23,807
OUTWARDS	29,545	(a)	(a)	(a)	(a)	—

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES
INWARDS .	Tons 17,644	Tons 25,830	Tons 25,654	Tons 30,296	Tons 30,870	Tons 26,058
OUTWARDS	17,231	23,292	22,663	28,493	31,485	24,632

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

(a) The B.B. for Honduras contain no returns from which these blanks can be supplied.

## THE AFRICAN COAST SETTLEMENTS. (a)

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	
IMPORTS {	Sierra Leone	—	79,648	109,686	87,251	104,639	95,306
	Gambia .....	—	50,269	43,081	32,527	39,255	41,283
EXPORTS {	Sierra Leone	—	41,442	57,854	71,076	81,280	62,913
	Gambia .....	—	60,302	65,130	50,765	38,434	53,657

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	
IMPORTS {	Sierra Leone	90,261	73,264	100,454	69,311	98,856	90,425
	Gambia .....	50,522	37,702	63,455	75,502	114,772	68,390
EXPORTS {	Sierra Leone	58,920	57,164	58,174	66,903	71,927	62,617
	Gambia .....	92,860	66,221	74,033	91,368	147,732	94,442

AUTHORITIES.—For Sierra Leone—1832-34: B.B. 1835-6: S.P. 696, 1847. For Gambia—B.B.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	
IMPORTS {	Sierra Leone	112,132	91,198	103,088	73,989	63,222	88,725
	Gambia .....	99,763	105,625	153,903	105,397	73,670	107,671
EXPORTS {	Sierra Leone	98,934	64,996	58,440	65,888	75,939	72,839
	Gambia .....	138,226	129,498	162,789	124,669	115,824	134,201

AUTHORITIES.—For Sierra Leone—S.P. 696, 1847. For Gambia—B.B.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	
IMPORTS {	Sierra Leone	81,144	97,041	83,051	114,476	105,368	95,616
	Gambia .....	114,063	107,018	96,106	117,890	94,175	105,862
EXPORTS {	Sierra Leone	87,553	105,110	91,444	103,384	125,878	102,673
	Gambia .....	149,133	134,513	136,745	154,816	163,082	147,657
	Cape Coast, Accra, &c.)	—	—	—	—	120,000	—

AUTHORITIES.—For Sierra Leone—1842-44: S.P. 696, 1847. 1845-46: B.B. For Gambia—B.B.

(a) There are scarcely any returns available as to the Settlements on the Cape Coast.

## THE AFRICAN COAST SETTLEMENTS. SHIPPING.

1827-31.

		1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES		
		Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons		
INWARDS	Sierra Leone	16,171	15,676	25,076	26,343	22,470	21,147	} Tons.	26,179
	Gambia.....	—	3,991	5,411	—	5,695	5,032		
OUTWARDS	Sierra Leone	14,828	17,882	18,491	22,874	29,754	20,765	} Tons.	25,183
	Gambia.....	—	3,991	5,411	4,533	3,740	4,418		

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.

		1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES		
		Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons		
INWARDS	Sierra Leone	20,816	18,023	17,307	17,453	18,372	18,394	} Tons.	30,683
	Gambia.....	9,658	9,279	11,758	16,228	14,522	12,289		
OUTWARDS	Sierra Leone	20,720	17,515	19,184	20,916	19,901	19,647	} Tons.	30,224
	Gambia.....	7,221	7,062	8,462	15,340	14,801	10,577		

AUTHORITIES.—For Sierra Leone—1832-34: B.B. 1835-6: S.P. 696, 1847.—For Gambia: B.B.

1837-41.

		1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES		
		Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons		
INWARDS	Sierra Leone	24,462	14,401	13,399	16,176	24,791	18,645	}	Tons.
	Gambia.....	14,176	12,543	12,407	14,009	11,876	13,002		31,647
OUTWARDS	Sierra Leone	26,401	13,548	14,602	15,020	22,704	18,455	}	Tons.
	Gambia.....	14,366	11,931	13,176	12,668	11,558	12,739		31,194

AUTHORITIES.—For Sierra Leone—S.P. 696, 1847.—For Gambia: B.B.

1842-46.

		1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES		
		Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons		
INWARDS	Sierra Leone	18,364	16,337	12,143	23,434	31,258	20,309	} Tons.	39,686
	Gambia .....	18,262	19,928	17,912	21,132	19,655	19,377		
OUTWARDS	Sierra Leone	23,057	16,020	12,475	22,235	30,980	20,953	} Tons.	39,965
	Gambia .....	18,121	19,185	17,128	20,317	20,312	19,012		
	Cape Coast, Accra, &c.)	—	—	—	—	7,772	—		

AUTHORITIES.—For Sierra Leone—1842-44: S.P. 696, 1847. For Gambia—B.B.

## CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 288,452	£ 264,497	£ 421,641	£ 504,565	£ 389,723	£ 373,775
EXPORTS <sup>(a)</sup>	218,803	264,420	348,458	281,495	253,251	273,285

AUTHORITY—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 332,006	£ 394,521	£ 462,768	£ 534,189	£ 819,269	£ 508,550
EXPORTS	293,665	291,048	369,802	362,280	384,229	340,204

AUTHORITIES—1832-34: B.B.—1835-6: S.P. 696, 1847.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 762,840	£ 973,906	£ 1,250,308	£ 1,447,336	£ 661,554	£ 1,019,188
EXPORTS	368,874	361,639	776,076	1,096,450	496,001	619,808

AUTHORITY—S.P. 696, 1847.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 650,369	£ 765,440	£ 651,236	£ 998,201	£ 1,123,061	£ 837,661
EXPORTS	350,735	328,389	409,870	519,236	489,354	419,516

AUTHORITIES—1842-44: S.P. 696, 1847 — 1845-6: B.B.

(a) The Exports, as returned from the Cape, do not include stores shipped by merchant vessels, or furnished to H.M. Navy. These, if included, would apparently add from 20 to 30 per cent. to the amount stated.

## CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

## SHIPPING.

[Exclusive of vessels putting in for refreshment.]

1827-31.

[Ports:—Cape Town, Simon's Town, and Port Elizabeth.]

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons 58,712	Tons 63,796	Tons 73,216	Tons 76,004	Tons 68,258	Tons 67,997
OUTWARDS	59,403	61,682	70,092	71,239	64,580	65,399

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons 82,928	Tons 109,231	Tons 107,655	Tons 114,706	Tons 124,952	Tons 107,894
OUTWARDS	83,698	100,111	115,155	113,352	118,042	106,071

AUTHORITIES—1832-34: B.B.—1835-6: S.P. 696, 1847.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons 139,108	Tons 170,329	Tons 168,729	Tons 151,381	Tons 151,799	Tons 156,269
OUTWARDS	147,456	131,119	177,804	204,818	170,741	166,387

AUTHORITY.—S.P. 696, 1847.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons 147,456	Tons 131,119	Tons 177,804	Tons 204,818	Tons 170,741	Tons 166,387
OUTWARDS	142,199	129,449	171,073	206,404	155,834	160,991

AUTHORITIES—1842-44: S.P. 696, 1847.—1845-6: B.B.

## MAURITIUS.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ —	£ 866,014	£ 891,321	£ 705,583	£ 529,685	£ 748,150
EXPORTS	—	683,564	731,075	606,684	612,524	658,461

AUTHORITY—B.B.

1832-36(a).

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 556,851	£ 593,382	£ 726,546	£ 634,424	£ 858,350	£ 673,740
EXPORTS	614,202	—	—	699,015	903,954	739,057

AUTHORITY—B.B.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 1,034,242	£ 1,332,671	£ 865,461	£ 994,213	£ 1,227,833	£ 1,090,884
EXPORTS	831,132	802,895	780,042	923,666	886,302	804,807

AUTHORITY—S.P. 696, 1847

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 859,967	£ 900,562	£ 1,132,731	£ 1,189,127	£ 1,123,427	£ 1,041,162
EXPORTS	853,772	808,377	1,021,694	1,258,494	1,623,498	1,113,167

AUTHORITIES—1842-44 S.P. 696, 1847 - 1845-6 B.B.

(a) In the B.B. for 1838 (at p. 161) is a note, by the Collector of Customs, stating that, in the years previous to 1836, specie and goods entered to be warehoused for re-exportation were included in the account of imports, but afterwards excluded—a statement of the value of specie unported being no longer required from the merchant, and goods warehoused being entered as imports only when taken for consumption. Hence, he observes—“The proportionate increase (in 1836-7-8) is even greater than is shown above.”

## MAURITIUS.

## SHIPPING.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons. —	Tons. 88,794	Tons. 110,172	Tons. 94,836	Tons. 67,917	Tons. 90,429
OUTWARDS	—	83,087	101,233	90,462	74,314	87,274

AUTHORITY—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons. 61,080	Tons. 76,224	Tons. 86,205	Tons. 70,888	Tons. 87,944	Tons. 76,468
OUTWARDS	63,842	73,040	87,427	66,308	81,608	74,445

AUTHORITY—S.P. 696, 1847.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons. 107,844	Tons. 120,022	Tons. 96,108	Tons. 98,643	Tons. 125,480	Tons. 109,619
OUTWARDS	95,306	109,965	90,499	91,661	117,444	100,975

AUTHORITY—S.P. 696, 1847.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons. 102,249	Tons. 158,641	Tons. 124,230	Tons. 121,637	Tons. 129,959	Tons. 123,341
OUTWARDS	94,990	147,692	112,141	125,686	125,895	121,280

AUTHORITY—S.P. 696, 1847.

## CEYLON.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ —	£ 323,933	£ 340,201	£ 349,582	£ 282,988	£ 324,176
EXPORTS	—	215,372	286,145	250,788	121,148	218,363

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 351,223	£ 320,891	£ 372,725	£ 352,076	£ 411,167	£ 361,616
EXPORTS	156,008	100,470	145,833	158,900	308,763	174,028

AUTHORITIES—R.T. and B.B.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 595,888	£ 547,501	£ 662,123	£ 733,747	£ 743,222	£ 656,496
EXPORTS	326,860	274,468	375,224	410,363	398,093	357,001

AUTHORITIES—1837-8: B.B. 1839-41: S.P. 696, 1847.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
IMPORTS	£ 831,311	£ 1,029,515	£ 1,360,721	£ 1,495,127	£ 1,372,701	£ 1,217,874
EXPORTS	458,146	422,479	532,167	583,100	679,286	535,035

AUTHORITIES—1842-44: S.P. 696, 1847. 1845-6: B.B.

These returns apparently include, as to both Imports and Exports, specie and goods warehoused for re-exportation.

## CEYLON.

## SHIPPING.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons —	Tons 60,070	Tons 69,912	Tons 77,030	Tons 63,833	Tons 67,711
OUTWARDS	—	48,626	64,639	69,887	57,834	60,179

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons 66,096	Tons 68,648	Tons 80,962	Tons 73,126	Tons 71,232	Tons 72,012
OUTWARDS	73,317	65,293	72,543	72,056	68,463	70,334

AUTHORITIES—R.T. and B.B.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons 76,368	Tons 96,292	Tons 105,838	Tons 103,005	Tons 109,606(a)	Tons 98,221
OUTWARDS	79,562	95,667	100,166	104,015	109,187(a)	97,719

AUTHORITY—B.B.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES.
INWARDS .	Tons 130,327(b)	Tons 140,853(c)	Tons 165,329	Tons 196,364	Tons 211,946	Tons 168,965
OUTWARDS	124,692(b)	139,622(c)	155,354	189,815	211,424	164,171

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

(a) For the year ending the 1st of October, 1841.

(b) For the year ending the 1st of October, 1842.

(c) For the year ending the 1st of October, 1843.

## THE AUSTRALIAN COLONIES.

1827-31.

	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	
IMPORTS	New South Wales	—	570,000	601,004	420,480	490,152	520,409
	Western Australia	No Returns					£764,463
	Van Dieman's Land	152,627	241,382	272,189	255,300	298,775	244,054
EXPORTS	New South Wales	—	90,050	161,716	141,461	324,168	179,348
	Western Australia	No Returns.					£392,560
	Van Dieman's Land	59,902	91,461	126,984	145,980	141,745	113,212

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.

	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	
IMPORTS	New South Wales	604,620	713,972	991,990	976,091	1,101,845	877,703
	Western Australia	No Returns.					£1,296,392
	Van Dieman's Land	392,666	352,894	476,617	439,084	432,184	418,689
EXPORTS	New South Wales	384,344	394,800	587,640	675,226	699,396	548,281
	Western Australia	No Returns.					£789,135
	Van Dieman's Land	157,907	152,967	203,523	321,368	368,505	240,854

AUTHORITIES.—1832-34: B. B.—1835-6: S. P. 696, 1847.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	
IMPORTS	New South Wales	1,055,125	1,459,022	2,130,147	2,548,775	1,870,129	1,812,639
	Western Australia	—	(Estimate) 46,766	—	—	—	£2,766,593
	South Australia...	No Returns before 1839.		346,649	303,320	288,348	312,772
	Van Dieman's Land	509,681	583,907	668,782	851,616	591,928	641,182
	New Zealand.....	—	—	—	—	132,320 <sup>(a)</sup>	—
EXPORTS	New South Wales	867,031	821,417	994,097	1,289,036	1,019,891	998,294
	Western Australia	—	(Estimate) 6,840	Estimate 5,448	—	—	£1,709,872
	South Australia ..	—	—	16,039	32,079	104,650	50,922
	Van Dieman's Land	558,662	587,078	785,679	769,066	602,799	660,656
	New Zealand.....	—	—	—	—	17,765	—

AUTHORITY. S. P. 696, 1847

<sup>(a)</sup> No Customs Duties levied, or official accounts of Imports kept, till 1841, S. P. 696, 1847, p. 130.

## AUSTRALIAN COLONIES.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES	
	£	£	£	£	£	£	
IMPORTS.	New South Wales	1,308,766	1,477,530	694,353	1,233,854	1,630,522	1,269,005
	Western Australia	—	(Estimate) <sup>a</sup> 37,486	(Estimate) 36,440	20,350	25,989	30,066
	South Australia ...	169,412	109,098	118,830	184,819	330,099	182,451
	VanDieman'sLand	490,030	629,331	449,724	520,562	561,238	530,177
	New Zealand .....	248,620	191,385	94,845	—	—	178,283
EXPORTS.	New South Wales	1,076,288	1,200,169	1,189,952	1,555,986	1,481,539	1,300,786
	Western Australia	—	7,078 <sup>(b)</sup>	13,663	13,353	20,222	13,479
	South Australia...	75,248	80,855	95,258	148,459	312,838	102,531
	VanDieman'sLand	535,481	436,660	386,300	422,218	582,585	472,648
	New Zealand .....	24,920	53,940	46,205	—	— <sup>(c)</sup>	41,688

£2,189,982

£1,931,132

AUTHORITIES.—1842-44: S.P. 696, 1847—1846-6: B. B.

## SHIPPING.

1827-31.

		1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	AVERAGES	
		Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons.	Tons	Tons	
INWARDS.	New South Wales.	—	32,559	37,342	31,235	34,000	33,784	Tons. 57,211
	Western Australia	No returns.						
	Van Dieman's Land	18,893	23,741	24,717	26,582	23,184	23,427	
OUTWARDS.	New South Wales.	—	20,186	37,586	28,882	35,252	30,476	Tons. 53,707
	Western Australia	No returns.						
	Van Dieman's Land	16,004	24,116	25,742	25,045	25,451	23,231	

Tons.

57,211

Tons.

53,707

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

1832-36.

		1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	AVERAGES		
		Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons		
INWARDS.	New South Wales.	36,020	50,144	57,442	63,019	65,414	54,407	} Tons. 97,723	
	Western Australia	No returns.							
	Van Dieman's Land	31,724	37,442	33,441	35,833	58,142	43,316		
OUTWARDS.	New South Wales.	42,857	48,335	53,373	66,964	62,834	54,872	} Tons. 94,911	
	Western Australia	No returns.							
	Van Dieman's Land	28,019	36,250	29,588	53,560	52,780	40,039		

Tons.

97,723

Tons.

94,911

AUTHORITY.—B.B.

(a) For the year ending the 30th of September, 1843. (b) For the year ending the 30th of September, 1843.  
(c) No B. B. has been received from New Zealand since that of 1844.

## AUSTRALIAN COLONIES.

## SHIPPING.

1837-41.

	1837	1838	1839	1840	1841	AVERAGES	
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	
INWARDS	New South Wales.	80,114	91,777	135,474	178,958	183,778	134,020
	Western Australia	—	5,516	16,805	39,661 <sup>(a)</sup>	26,781 <sup>(b)</sup>	—
	South Australia ...	No return till 1841.				17,799	—
	Van Dieman's Land	60,960	64,454	79,283	85,081	84,214	74,798
	New Zealand .....	—	—	—	—	19,746	—
OUTWARDS	New South Wales.	78,020	93,004	124,776	163,704	172,118	126,324
	Western Australia	—	4,857	—	—	35,162	—
	South Australia ...	No return till 1841.				19,237	—
	Van Dieman's Land	47,945	63,392	77,556	86,701	85,201	72,159
	New Zealand .....	—	—	—	—	14,170	—

AUTHORITY—B.B.

1842-46.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	AVERAGES	
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	
INWARDS	New South Wales.	143,921	110,864	87,539	105,352	141,467	117,828
	Western Australia	32,496 <sup>(c)</sup>	17,130 <sup>(d)</sup>	10,002	7,855	6,365	14,769
	South Australia ...	12,499	7,532	9,540	13,793	25,478	13,768
	Van Dieman's Land	—	92,501	68,462	70,394	74,795	77,288
	New Zealand .....	54,967	39,898	39,841 <sup>(e)</sup>	—	—	44,902
OUTWARDS	New South Wales.	134,970	110,026	109,242	103,961	134,998	118,639
	Western Australia	—	—	9,652	—	6,451	8,051
	South Australia ...	12,835	8,001	9,212	12,763	24,031	13,368
	Van Dieman's Land	—	88,984	71,756	71,422	79,430	77,898
	New Zealand .....	46,506	36,752	36,217	—	—	39,825

AUTHORITY—B.B.

(a) For the year ending the 31st of March, 1841.

(b) For the year ending the 31st of March, 1842.

(c) For the year ending the 30th of September, 1842.

(d) For the year ending the 30th of September, 1843.

(e) No subsequent returns have been received at the Colonial Office.

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